The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 25, 1892.

The Week.

THERE is only one view to be taken of the action of the Hill Convention at Albany. Summed up in a sentence, the Convention has served notice upon the Democratic party of the country not to nominate Mr. Cleveland for the Presidency. When we say Convention, we mean, of course, David B. Hill. He was, from the beginning to the end, the Convention. Its delegates did nothing that he had not arranged in advance for them to do. For a month he has been, in complete neglect of his duties as Senator, sitting in headquarters at Albany, packing this Convention, running with his own hand the perfect political machine which he has, for the past seven years, with the aid of the public service of this State, been constructing for this very purpose. He selected the delegation which the Convention appointed to present his name to the Chicago Convention, he drafted the complimentary resolutions upon his candidacy which the Convention adopted, and, when this part of his programme had been executed, he had himself summoned before the Convention which he had packed, and delivered a speech which he had prepared for the occasion days in advance. In fact, had he appointed his solid Hill delegation in his headquarters, without a primary or a convention, and thanked himself for the honor in a speech to himself in his private room, there would have been just as much popular and spontaneous Democratic sentiment behind his candidacy as there is after the Convention farce has been completed.

No party in the history of the country has had a candidate more plainly destined for it, if it has any excuse for existence, than Mr. Cleveland is destined for the Democratic party this year. He has given it the first great issue it has had for a quarter of a century, and has kept it true to that issue till it has won one of the greatest victories ever achieved in American politics—a victory, in fact, which amounted to a political revolution. On that issue next November Mr. Cleveland would be an invincible candidate, if the elections of the past three years can be taken as a basis for prediction. As Congressman Harter says, in speaking of the confidence which the Ohio Democrats secured among the people of that State when they got the courage to declare in favor of free wool: "We might have said, 'We are Democrats' until eternity and we would not have converted a single political soul in that great political State." That is the situation in the whole country. If the Democratic party, under the guidance of a rascally political trickster who has consolidated the worst elements of American politics on his side, makes the blunder of abandoning the issues on which it has won the reluctant confidence of the American people—tariff reform, honest money, and honest administration of public affairs—by abandoning the candidate who personifies those issues as no other candidate can, the party will return to its old position of "We are Democrats," and will relapse into the condition of perpetual defeat and contempt from which Mr. Cleveland's leadership lifted it.

The Republican primaries in Indiana show that Harrison is to have a solid delegation from his own State to the Republican National Convention. The Federal office-holders in the South, who constitute practically the whole of the party in many States, will turn in for him nearly all of the delegates from that section. The Burlington *Hawk-Eye* has been studying the tone of the daily and weekly Republican newspapers of Iowa since Blaine's withdrawal was announced, and reports that "the nearly unanimous expression is in favor of the renomination of President Harrison." There is still some talk of complimentary votes for Alger from Michigan and for Cullom from Illinois, but neither of them stands the slightest chance of getting more than a small fraction of the delegates. There is nothing for the party to do except to renominate Harrison, and every one is coming to see it.

A municipal election was held in Philadelphia last week, the most striking result of which was that the worst candidates before the people received the largest majorities. Among the officers to be chosen were four magistrates. Two of the men on the Republican ticket were incumbents who had been exposed as having shared their fees with the notorious embezzler Bardsley. Two independent candidates were put in the field against them by decent Republicans, and an outsider might have supposed that at least their majority would have been cut down, if they had not been beaten outright. But the delinquent officials were not at all alarmed. They simply made an arrangement with the bosses of the Democratic party by which the latter refused to exercise their right to nominate four candidates for magistrates, and nominated but two. As all the active workers of the election, and both the Republican and Democratic machines, were controlled by the "combines" and "leaders," the result was that, although the two independent candidates received about 6,000 votes, the two against whom the movement was directed polled several thousand more votes than their two respectable associates on the Republican ticket.

A startling indication of the tone of the New York Legislature on questions of temperance and public morals was furnished in the action of the Senate last week in passing Senator Plunkitt's bill for the protection of dive-keepers. Nobody except a Tammany heeler of the worst type, as Plunkitt is, would have had the audacity to introduce a measure of this kind at the very time when public attention in this city is concentrated upon "dives," and the authorities are being forced by public sentiment into prosecuting the keepers of the worst of them and sending them to prison. The object of the bill is to make such prosecutions more difficult hereafter by requiring that no complaint against such places shall be entertained unless made in writing and verified, as pleadings are verified under the Code of Civil Procedure, by an affidavit that the matter alleged is true of the complainant's own knowledge or belief. The bill applies to the whole State, and opens the way to the practically unrestricted keeping of "dives" and "dance-houses" in every city and town of the State. People who are inclined to think that the Rev. Dr. Parkhurst has been using too strong language in his denunciation of Tammany men and methods, would do well to consider this measure and its companion and ally, the Liquor-Dealers' Excise Bill. If the two become laws, as they now seem destined to, it will not be long before every respectable person in the city will be convinced not only that Dr. Parkhurst's language was the simple truth, but that it was spoken not a moment too soon.

Brooklyn has just had a novel experience in the matter of liquor licenses. The Excise Board has held a meeting and adopted a resolution declaring that there ought not to be any increase during 1892 in the number of licenses; that saloons ought not to be allowed on more than two of the four corners formed by the intersections of streets; and that "the best interests of the city of Brooklyn, and the proper regulation of the excise matters therein intrusted to this Board, are served if this Board hereafter does not grant any license for the sale of intoxicating liquors in close proximity to any school or church in said city." There is no large city where licenses have been granted more freely than in Brooklyn of late years. There are over 4,000 saloons in the city, which means one to every 225 people, or one to every 62 adult males; and on some of the main avenues there are from two to four saloons at nearly all the intersections of cross streets. Licenses have been freely granted in the vicinity of schools and churches, and in quarters which were supposed to

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be given up entirely to fine residences. There is consequently full justification for the position taken by the Excise Board, but it is, nevertheless, a great surprise. While there have been of late many earnest protests from influential sources against the policy of the Excise Board, there has not been any such outburst of popular indignation as sometimes forces such officials to call a halt.

The explanation of the change of policy appears to be that the liquor interest itself has concluded that the saloon business is overdone. The custom has been for the brewers to start bar-tenders in saloons and take a chattel mortgage, with the understanding that only the beer manufactured by these brewers should be sold there. Such saloons have been started by the hundreds, until nobody could walk the streets of Brooklyn without often saying to himself, "I don't see how they make a living." It seems that they have not, and the brewers have decided that they will not start any more saloons until the city grows up to what it already has. The President of the State Retail Liquor Dealers' Association is perfectly frank about the matter. Being asked whether that association favored the resolution passed by the Excise Commissioners, he replied, "Of course it does. It is a step in the right direction. It will regulate the sale of liquor to a great extent, and will be better for all hands engaged in the business. There are a great many who have stores now who are not making a living." The spectacle of the organized liquor traffic favoring a restriction in the number of saloons is certainly a novel one, and the temperance people who have been working to the same end will be surprised to receive assistance from so unexpected a source.

Congressman Bland has evidently got returns from Congressman Harter's circular to the Grand Army posts on the shrinkage of pensions involved in the free coinage of silver. It is easy for any pensioner to see that if he is now getting $12 per month in money worth 100 cents per dollar, he will get only $8.40 per month when the dollar is worth only 70 cents. The simplicity of this demonstration exasperated Bland to such an extent that on Thursday he interrupted the proceedings of the House, which was engaged on the Indian Appropriation Bill, to call attention to the circular, which he styled a "bulldozing document." Mr. Harter avowed himself the author of the circular, and defended it, saying among other things that he desired to prevent the Democratic party from taking a step which would result in reëlecting Benjamin Harrison as President of the United States. Mr. Harter has also drawn up a call for a Democratic caucus to consider the free-coinage question. This is a wise and necessary proceeding. The country wants to know whether the Democratic party is so bereft of its senses as to pass this ruinous, swindling bill. While a doubt exists on this subject, thousands of voters are saying to themselves: "This poor old Democratic party is just as bad as it was before the war. There is no use trying to do anything for it or with it."

Attention has been drawn to the new silver-mining-camp at Creede, Col., which bids fair to prove a second Leadville in point of richness. The cost of production at this place is said to be not more than 40 cents per ounce, and its capacity is as yet undetermined. The mines are on the line of the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad. Consequently, all the necessary machinery and building material can be brought in and the ore carried out at the lowest possible rate. Twenty-five car-loads of ore are going out every day. Now Mr. Harter very reasonably inquires whether pensioners ought to be asked to accept forty cents' worth of silver as the equivalent of a dollar in case the new mines at Creede and elsewhere should depress the price of silver to that extent. Also, whether wage-workers and savings-bank depositors should be paid off in the same way. These are very proper questions for a caucus.

One thing, at least, is reassuring in the statement which Secretary Foster put forth in Washington on February 17. He said it was "silly to suppose that he contemplated the use of the $100,000,000 gold reserve to meet the current obligations of the Government." This is something of a reflection upon Assistant-Secretary Spaulding, who on January 23 told the Committee on Ways and Means that he "understood" Secretary Foster considered the gold reserve available to meet current expenses. In fact, this is not the first time that Mr. Foster has had to rap the knuckles of an indiscreet subordinate. Ever since he took charge of the Treasury the management has suffered not only from his lack of financial experience, but from his habit of putting out "feelers" as to the policy of the Treasury, just as he was in the habit of doing in regard to merely partisan policy. The Treasury officials under him have not unnaturally taken his suggestions as meaning something, and have had to be repeatedly called to order by him when he found that public and expert opinion was against him. Where Secretary Foster gets his $5,500,000 in the national-bank redemption fund, which he said was at his disposal, is a good deal of a puzzle. In his annual report he showed how the $54,207,975 lying in the Treasury on that account and turned over as available cash by the law of July 14, 1890, together with the $9,363,715 deposited on the same account up to the end of the fiscal year, had all been spent. So far this year the deposits by banks have been but $1,760,648, while the outlay on the same score has been $10,428,663, leaving a net deficit on this item of over $8,000,000. We are unable to see how the Secretary converts this into an unexpended balance.

The shipment of half a million of gold by Saturday's steamers is said to have been for a special reason, the rate of exchange not warranting it as an ordinary trade movement. If there be such a special reason, it is probably to be found in the efforts of Austria-Hungary to put herself upon the gold standard. The suffering that that country has undergone by reason of the fluctuations of silver (the present monetary standard of the empire), has been extreme, and the fear of still further ups and downs, but principally downs, has determined her statesmen to make almost any sacrifice to secure the gold standard. The present is a very bad time for such a step in Europe, the wrenching and twisting which accompanied the Baring crisis of 1890 being still severely felt and being aggravated by bad harvests in 1891. Nevertheless there are indications that the Austro-Hungarian Government is persisting in its endeavor, and is seizing gold wherever it can find any that is not too tenaciously held. The United States can spare this article more readily than any other country now. Although our merchandise exports continue to be enormous and show a balance of trade in our favor for seven months of $182,500,000 (according to the *Financial Chronicle*), yet we have bought back from Europe a vast but unknown quantity of our own securities, and the stream is still flowing this way. This movement has been accelerated by fears on the other side that we are approaching a silver basis, through sheer inability of the Treasury to meet its current expenses and redeem its new silver notes in gold. Foreigners overlook the fact that the Secretary has the power and is charged with the duty of selling bonds if necessary to maintain gold payments. There is no reason to suppose that he would fail to apply this remedy in a crisis, or that the remedy would prove inadequate.

The Anti-Option Bill at Washington has had the effect already to depress the price of wheat. The reason is that it tends to restrict trading to a hand-and-mouth operation. It withdraws capital from the grain market, and gives to the buyer for immediate use (for example, the Minneapolis miller) a command over the market. It drives his competitor (the buyer for future delivery) out of the field. No doubt the Minneapolis millers who are so hot for the bill are working for the interests of the farmer as they understand these interests. No doubt the prosperity of the farmer depends on the prosperity of the miller, just as the general prosperity depends on the protected manufacturers. Still, we wish that the farmer might be enabled to see that two and two make four in the grain market as well as

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in the schoolroom. He has been fooled by Alliance lecturers and others into believing that short sellers have the market all to themselves, and that when they want to put down the price of grain they begin by driving the buyers out of the Produce Exchange and then holding high carnival all by themselves. Senator Washburn is under no such delusion. He knows that there are buyers for every pound of wheat sold, whether for present or for future delivery, but he knows also that if the buyers for future delivery can, by any means, be driven out, the honest miller will be the only cash customer, and will, therefore, have the whip-hand of the market. It now looks as though the Constitution might intervene to save the farmer from his friends. Article I., section 7, of that instrument says that "all bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives." This bill lays a tax on a certain class of contracts, and is, therefore, a revenue measure. It would seem to be necessary for Mr. Washburn to wait till the House favors him with some bill which an honest miller can support.

Gen. Francis A. Walker has made a practical suggestion for the restriction of immigration. He would have the Government impose a tax of $100 a head upon every newcomer to this country. Undoubtedly such a system would put an effectual check upon immigration if it could be adopted. But the difficulty will be to get it adopted. Such a law would have to be passed by a Congress many of whose members could never have entered the United States if $100 a head had been exacted of everybody who wanted to come here. Of Wisconsin's nine Representatives, for example, one was born in Hesse-Darmstadt, Germany, and brought to this country as a boy of eight; another in Bavaria, and brought here at six; and a third in Norway, and brought to America in his youth. One of Minnesota's five Representatives was born in Norway and brought here as a baby, while another was born in Sweden and came here in his boyhood. It will be hard to persuade such men that other poor Germans or Scandinavians should be forbidden a chance to bring their families here and "give the children a chance"; and if Germans and Scandinavians are to be admitted without paying the tax, where shall the line be drawn? It is not strange that Western newspapers should be expressing the opinion that there is no prospect of Gen. Walker's suggestion coming to anything.

The mortality reports published monthly by the Connecticut Board of Health are compiled with great care, and for December, 1891, and January, 1892, cover 167 out of the 168 towns in the State. For that period of two months they are of exceptional interest, because they show authoritatively the increase of deaths caused by the "grip" and the diseases which are apt to follow it. In each of those months the mortality list surpassed any month's record since the Board was established in 1878. There were 1,729 deaths in December and 1,953 in January, the nearest approach to these figures being those for the "grip" month of January, 1890, and for the hot July of 1887, when they reached respectively 1,648 and 1,649. The average monthly rate for the last six years in the State has been only 1,052, so that the average (1,841) for the two months exceeded by 75 per cent. the average rate for the six years. The unprecedented mortality of 1,953 for last January is 860 more than the average for the preceding five Januaries, notwithstanding the "grip" January of 1890 is numbered among them; and the total deaths for the two months from grip, pneumonia, and bronchitis are no less than 1,392 out of 3,682, or nearly 38 per cent. A curious feature of the report for last month is the fact that in 137 towns of less than 5,000 inhabitants the figures represent an annual death-rate of 34.9 per 1,000, while in 30 towns of more than 5,000 inhabitants the figures are 29.7 per 1,000. This seems to argue that during epidemic disease the healthful air of the country towns is more than offset by the superior home comforts and better medical attendance of the cities. Probably, also, the fatality of the disease among the old folks left behind on the Yankee farms is another factor, though one which cannot be computed in exact figures.

"An Interesting Question" was the appropriate subject of a suggestive editorial article which appeared in the St. Louis *Republic* a few days ago. The writer begins with a reference to what he calls the "town movement" in the agricultural States of the West and South which followed the war, and which, he thinks, resulted from war legislation. As a consequence of this movement, the county and railroad towns in these States "became more and more the centres of activity, with all their phenomena of 'doggeries' and such like, that are inevitable in every period of change." The bad effects are most clearly perceptible in those who are now boys from ten to seventeen years of age, and especially in the matter of education. They are subjected to the full influence of the habits of small towns, while their fathers in the agricultural communities are too poor to give them a thorough education. As a consequence, they have only the barest smattering picked up in the common schools, and it is hard to get them to take even this much. When they have learned to read and write, they think they have enough, and they want to "stop learning and 'go to merchandising'—which means clerking in the grocery-store or the general-supply store." But while this is true of the boys, the girls in the very same communities are getting a fair education. They are anxious to learn, and their parents make great sacrifices to educate them. Female seminaries of high grade are kept up in places where the teacher of a high-grade school for boys would be starved to death. Moreover, "the girls are taught enough to enable them to go on learning after their school days are over, until they get some idea of what the world means." The *Republic* writer is moved by all this to propound sundry questions:

> "What is to come of this? What will girls who have got the very best education their circumstances afford do with such husbands when they get them? What will be the effect twenty years from now? Is it true that 'as the husband is the wife is,' and that the clowns with whom these educated young women will be mated will have strength to drag them down? Or will they be able to make the clown ashamed of himself and his clownishness?"

This article has attracted the attention of the Buffalo *Courier* and elicited a not less interesting response. The Buffalo writer thinks that the *Republic* has got hold of only one phase of the matter; that the agricultural States are not the only ones in which a generation of women is growing up which is superior to the corresponding generation of men; and that all over the country the girls continue to go to school after the boys (in most cases by choice rather than by necessity) drop their studies. But this is not the most marked feature of the movement, in the *Courier's* opinion. It points out that the literary societies, not only in the country but in the cities, are chiefly societies of women. It says that there may be half-a-dozen literary organizations composed exclusively of men in Buffalo, though the names of only two are familiar to the writer of the article, but there must be nearly fifty whose members are confined to the other sex. Rochester is a university town, and the literary clubs composed of men there might naturally be expected to play an important part in the life of the city; but the *Courier* says that "none of them can compare in success with a club of women whose meetings regularly fill the church in which they are held." Every well-informed journalist knows that the same thing is true, or coming to be true, everywhere, and must agree with the *Courier* that under existing conditions "the time is fast coming when the generality of women will be more intelligent than the generality of men, at least as far as intelligence is acquired by the study of books." The Buffalo observer is not at all alarmed by the situation. He thinks it will be an advantage to the race to have the female sex more highly educated, both in the way of its own protection and in the training of children. "The girls of the present generation," it says, "will not allow their sons to grow up, as did their brothers, unappreciative of the value of schooling." This is undoubtedly the vital feature of the case, and it shows how the *Republic's* problem is to be solved.

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THE ALBANY CONSPIRATORS.

JUDGE CULLEN'S decision in the Emans contempt case amounts to a charge of conspiracy, made from the bench of the Supreme Court of the State, against David B. Hill, Governor, Frank Rice, Secretary of State, and Isaac H. Maynard, Deputy Attorney-General. Summed up briefly, the Judge holds that the Clerk of Dutchess County, who was charged with contempt of court for not properly transmitting a legal return to the State Canvassing Board, was not guilty as charged, since he did transmit the return properly, and that the reason why the return was not before the Canvassing Board when it held its final session was because it had been abstracted from the official files by Messrs. Hill, Rice, and Maynard. That is to say, while the Clerk is not guilty of contempt, these three State officers are guilty of conspiracy.

Judge Cullen goes over the points in the case very carefully, and makes each point in the conspiracy so plain that no concealment or denial of it will be possible hereafter. He holds that the duty imposed upon the County Clerk, by both the statute and the order of the court, was to transmit the returns, and that when he had put the returns in the Post-office and they had been delivered at the offices of the State officials to which they had been mailed, his duty ceased. After that, whatever action the clerk might take to recover the returns would not constitute official misconduct or contempt of court, but personal crime. The Judge goes on to show that all the steps which the clerk took to recover two of the three copies of the returns which he had sent, from the offices of the Governor and Secretary of State, were taken under authority from Gov. Hill and Mr. Maynard, and with the consent and approval of the Governor and Secretary of State, and that these three officials, and not Emans, are responsible for the offence committed. As for the taking of the third copy of the returns, which Mr. Maynard took from the Comptroller's office, Judge Cullen holds Mr. Maynard solely responsible for that offence. After this careful summing up of the case, the Judge makes decision as follows:

"Though the enclosures containing the returns had not been open, no imposition was practised upon any of the officers as to their contents, but the officers were entirely aware of the character of the papers delivered up. There was, therefore, in law and in fact, a complete transmission of the returns to the officers prescribed by statute. The returns were not before the Board of State Canvassers, not because of any defect in the transmission, nor of a disobedience of the order of the Court, but because, by the action of the Secretary of State, the Governor, and the counsel of the Comptroller, the returns were taken from the several public offices where they had been properly received and were given to Mr. Emans."

Every word of that decision goes straight to the point, and puts the brand of conspiracy upon Messrs. Hill, Rice, and Maynard so thoroughly that they will never be able to remove it. The returns which they as public officials removed from the files of the State, which they were sworn to guard, were those of the Fifteenth Senatorial District declaring the election of Deane, the Republican candidate. It is worth while to recapitulate briefly the history of those returns. Under the inspiration of Messrs. Hill and Maynard, the Democratic Board of Supervisors had so juggled with the election figures as to make out a majority for the Democratic candidate. Judge Barnard of the Supreme Court, who, like Judge Cullen, is a Democrat, was applied to for a mandamus compelling the Board to recanvass the vote and correct their frauds and errors. He granted it, and issued a stay upon the State Canvassing Board restraining it from acting upon the certificate of election issued on the erroneous canvass, saying: "The State Board has a return which does not indicate the true result. It is proper that the Board should hold its hand until the true record reaches it." What the true record was, Judge Barnard made plain a few days later, when, at the conclusion of another hearing, he ordered the County Canvassers to issue a certificate of election to Mr. Deane, and ordered the clerk to forward the same to Albany.

There were many subsequent efforts made by Messrs. Hill and Maynard to prevent this order of transmission of the returns from being executed, but they were all thwarted after many legal battles in the courts, and the clerk mailed the returns. Then it was that the conspiracy was organized for abstracting them from the mails after they had reached the State officers who were sworn to receive and guard them in the name of the State. There had been, up to this point, decisions by two Democratic Judges of the Supreme Court, Barnard and Edwards, that these returns were legal and proper, and that the other returns, based on the fraudulent count, did not indicate the true result of the election. The false returns were in the hands of the Secretary of State, Mr. Rice, and were carefully guarded by him. If the legal returns were to reach him, they would have to go before the State Canvassing Board, and there would be no excuse for not declaring Deane elected, unless the Court of Appeals were to reverse the decisions of Judges Barnard and Edwards. The legal returns reached Albany on December 22. The decisions of the Court of Appeals on all the disputed cases, were expected daily. The conspirators clearly had no faith that the Court would help them, for they rifled the mails of these legal returns on the morning of their arrival, before they could be put upon record. A few days later the decisions of the Court of Appeals were published, and the following passage in reference to the Dutchess County case, and the decisions of Judges Barnard and Edwards, showed that the conspirators had hit upon the only method by which the legal returns could be prevented from coming before the State Canvassing Board:

"Upon these facts, standing uncontradicted, we think the court below, in its proper branch, would have the power to command the State Canvassers to canvass without regard to such a return [the first and illegal one]. As it contained the result of an illegal and erroneous canvass by the Board of Canvassers in excess of its jurisdiction, and which thereby would alter the result of an election, the court should not permit it to be canvassed. As to the allegations of the manner of the making of the return by the County Board, the State Board could not itself inquire into them. *If another return should be sent to the Board, properly authenticated and containing the result of the legal action of the Board of County Canvassers, the State Board could canvass it.*"

It was this return, taken from the mails and from the official records, by Messrs. Hill, Maynard, and Rice, which decided the control of the Senate. When the State Canvassing Board met, the illegal and erroneous return, so declared by the Supreme Court and the Court of Appeals, was the only one before it. Mr. Rice, acting as Chairman, refused to make any answer when he was asked if he knew of another return, and the illegal return was canvassed and a seat stolen. It was this theft which gave the Democrats a majority of one in the Senate, and Judge Cullen's decision now declares that theft to have been the result of a conspiracy by Hill, Maynard, and Rice. All three of them should be prosecuted for their official misconduct. One of them is running for the Presidency, another is on the bench of the Court of Appeals, and the third is hailed as a recruit to the Presidential cause of the first. They appear to believe that the moral sense of the American people is as dull as their own. Surely, so far as Judge Maynard is concerned, the Bar Association must now perceive that it has a duty to perform which cannot be shirked. As for Hill and his miserable tool Rice, we have no doubt whatever that the American people will attend to them in due season.

THE IOWA SITUATION.

IOWA has always cast her electoral votes in a Presidential contest for the Republican candidate, and Republican newspapers outside the State always put her down among the "sure Republican States" in 1892. But Republican newspapers published in the State by no means share this confidence. The Council Bluffs *Nonpareil*, for example, contained an editorial article in its issue of February 14 entitled "Iowa's Supreme Danger," which opens with this emphatic paragraph:

"Do the Republican members of the Legislature realize the danger of Iowa becoming irretrievably and permanently Democratic? They have only to maintain their present do-nothing policy on the prohibition question to accomplish this."

Two agencies have been at work to make a State which in 1880 gave Garfield 78,082 over Hancock, and 45,381 over the combined vote of the Democrats and Greenbackers, in danger twelve years later of becoming "permanently Democratic." One element has been the growth of the high-protection craze in the national Republican party. Garfield's great majority in Iowa came after ten years' advocacy and promise of lower tariff rates by the Republican party of Iowa—the very next

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year after John H. Gear had been reëlected Governor by a great majority, as he had been first elected in 1877, upon a platform declaring that "we favor a wisely adjusted tariff for revenue." As the high-protection wing gained control of the party, the Republicans of Iowa, who had been educated by their trusted leaders to favor and expect a revenue tariff, became at first dissatisfied, and finally indignant, until at last thousands of them in 1890 voted for Democratic candidates for Congress who stood on practically the same tariff platform the Iowa Republicans occupied between 1870 and 1880; and again in 1891 these same Republicans voted for a Democratic candidate for Governor who was an outspoken advocate of a revenue tariff. This was shown by the large vote polled for Gov. Boies last fall in rural counties chiefly inhabited by farmers.

The other agency which has been at work of late years against the Republicans is the prohibitory law. Prohibition was originally carried at what was called a "non-partisan election," where the question of such an amendment to the Constitution was the only issue submitted, and it was largely carried by the action of men who did not really believe in it, but who either voted yea or refrained from voting nay because the tide set strongly in its favor just then. The amendment was annulled upon technical grounds by the Supreme Court, but a prohibitory law was enacted by the Legislature soon after. The experiment has proved a failure, and the majority of the people are disgusted with it. Gov. Boies made his campaign in 1889, and again in 1891, upon a platform which demanded the repeal of the prohibitory law and the substitution of a local-option and high-license system. Thousands of men who had always been Republicans, and who declared themselves still Republicans in national politics, voted for him upon this issue. These men are now more than ever convinced of the wisdom of their course, and they demand that the Legislature chosen last fall shall heed the voice of the people.

The embarrassment of the Republicans arises from the fact that they control the lower branch of the Legislature. An apportionment made years ago operates in their favor, so that, although Boies received almost 8,000 more votes than the Republican candidate for Governor, and the Democrats also secured control of the Senate, the Republicans carried fifty-three of the one hundred Representative districts. These fifty-three Republicans were elected after a campaign in which the party had declared for the principle of prohibition, and promised to sustain the law if they should carry the election. "We submit to the people of Iowa the determination of the issue," the platform read, "recognizing that the control of the next Legislature by the Democratic party means State-wide license, and that the control of the next Legislature by the Republicans means continued opposition to the behests of the saloon power through the maintenance and enforcement of the law."

The submission of the issue showed that a majority of the people of Iowa are opposed to the prohibitory law, but the legislative apportionment resulted in a House of Representatives controlled by men who are pledged to "the maintenance and enforcement of the law." Ever since the election last November, Republican editors and politicians have been discussing what the party had better do in this emergency. One element takes the ground that the will of the people ought to control; that the people have willed the repeal of prohibition; and that Republican legislators ought to bow to this will, whether they think it right or not. Others declare that these fifty-three Republican Representatives are bound by their pledges to maintain the law, and would dishonor both themselves and the party if they should break these pledges. One set says that the party is sure to be beaten if it sticks to prohibition, as two successive State elections have shown that a majority of the voters are opposed to it. The other set says that the party can carry the State only by the help of those Republicans who believe conscientiously in prohibition, and that such Republicans will desert the party by tens of thousands if it abandons the cause.

The question is now pending before the Legislature, and must be decided at an early day. The indications are that the Republicans will all stand by prohibition. If they do, there are plenty of warnings from thorough-going Republicans, like the editor of the *Nonpareil*, that the State will go Democratic. Iowa has thirteen electoral votes, and it is a new sensation for the country to have a Presidential canvass in which they are to be accounted doubtful.

ZONAL RECIPROCITY.

THE intimate connection of cartography with the question of foreign commerce has long been known to those who have studied the most profound writers on international exchanges. Thus, it was at one time a well-established principle with them that "longitudinal trade" was a perfectly safe and highly desirable thing, but that "latitudinal commerce" was fully as bad in political economy as latitudinarian opinions are in theology. This axiom was brought out for the particular exposure and condemnation of those un-American reasoners who, in 1888, were arguing that if it was well to exchange commodities with San Domingo and the Sandwich Islands, it would be also in the case of Germany and France. A most touching picture was drawn at the time of the argosies of commerce moving in prosperity and triumph along the lines of longitude, but working havoc and disaster as soon as, by any fatal chance, they took a cross-country route. "Give us reciprocity with South America and Canada," was the *Tribune's* cry at that time, "but do not yield a single degree of latitude."

Times have changed since then, however, and it is no wonder that a recasting of definitions has become necessary. The old longitudinal idea is still good for South America, but can scarcely be considered so axiomatic as formerly in view of the repeated rebuffs which the Canadian Commissioners have met in their efforts to arrive at a reciprocity agreement with the present Administration. Moreover, the latter is understood to have deserved the vote of every farmer and manufacturer for its achievements in promoting reciprocity with Germany and France, to which countries approach is distinctly along lines of latitude. In fact, the situation might have been thought a particularly difficult one for our great protectionist thinkers to cover with a neat definition; but the *Tribune* rose to the occasion last week with the following contribution to economic thought:

> "Reciprocity with Canada is, however, a very different thing from commercial union with tropical America and Germany. It is reciprocity between portions of the same zone, and all the main advantages of the bargain lie with the less populous district which covets the commercial privileges of the greatest market in the world."

A mind not fitted by previous training to rise to the height of this great argument might be foolish enough to inquire why, in view of this great truth, the *Tribune* is as anxious as it is for reciprocity with Mexico. That republic is as truly in the same "zone" with New England as Canada is with Texas or California, and, moreover, it is "the less populous district," which would get "the main advantages of the bargain." But all this would be not only impertinent but an unjust reflection upon the *Tribune's* logical and geographical resources. Nothing would be easier for it, we are sure, than to show how the great isothermal lines, or the trend of the Gulf Stream, or the direction of the trade winds, make trade with Mexico a wholly different thing from trade with Canada. In fact, it would no doubt be capable, with Lord Jeffrey, of speaking disrespectfully of the Equator in order to find a reason for a course it had already determined upon.

In all seriousness, the cold reception which the Canadian Commissioners have again had to encounter is a striking commentary upon the sincerity of the pretension of the Republicans that they really desire to promote foreign commerce. Here is a country right at our doors with which, even under the present restrictive conditions, we do a business little short of $100,000,000 a year. In each country a strong public sentiment exists in favor of breaking down or greatly modifying those restrictive conditions. Influential Republicans like Senator Sherman and ex-Congressman Butterworth have strongly advocated reciprocity with Canada. The strong feeling of New England Republicanism in favor of it is well known. Only a fortnight ago the Boston *Evening Transcript* spoke of the direct

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and special interest of that city "in the errand of the Canadian Commissioners at Washington," but added:

"It can be stated that neither the President nor the Secretary is very anxious to oblige the Canadian officials, as they have repeatedly interfered to prevent our Government from concluding a treaty with Newfoundland, and acted in an unfriendly manner with respect to the seal fisheries in Alaskan waters. Still, it is believed in Washington that there is a chance that something important will grow out of the present negotiations. The bungling diplomacy in South America, and especially the crowning blunder of intentionally bringing the country to the verge of war after Chili's apology had arrived in Washington, has been so unprofitable and unpopular that an attempt to retrieve the foreign-affairs record of the Administration by important negotiations making for peace and trade is altogether desirable and quite legitimate as politics."

It has been asserted that the coming of the Canadian envoys was a mere blind, designed for effect on home politics, just as our reciprocity schemes were taken up for political effect, and that they had no real authority to treat in a broad way. But in the same issue of the *Tribune* in which this assertion was made, appeared a telegram from Ottawa giving the following summary of Lord Stanley's letter of instructions to the delegates:

"The letter says that the joint commission to be appointed is authorized to deal without limitation, and to propose a treaty respecting the following subjects: (1) renewal of the reciprocity treaty of 1854, subject to such modification as the altered circumstances of both countries require, and to such extensions as the Commission may deem to be in the interests of the United States and Canada; (2) reconsideration of the treaty of 1888, respecting the Atlantic fisheries, with the view of effecting free admission of Canadian fishery products into the markets of the United States, in exchange for facilities for United States fishermen to purchase bait and supplies, and to transship cargoes in Canada, all such privileges to be mutual; (3) protection of mackerel and other fisheries in the Atlantic Ocean, and in inland waters; (4) relaxation of the coasting laws of both countries on the seaboard; (5) relaxation of the coasting laws of both countries in inland waters between the United States and Canada; (6) mutual salvage and saving of wrecked vessels; (7) arrangements for delimitation of boundary between Alaska and Canada, such treaty, of course, to be ad referendum."

Here was certainly a basis of sufficient breadth for serious negotiation, and the fact that the Commissioners coming with such proposals were brusquely dismissed for the second time well shows the narrow views and motives now ruling at Washington. If a tenth part of the effort given to treating with San Domingo or Venezuela had been bestowed upon this vastly more important question of trade with Canada, some arrangement could surely have been arrived at which would have contributed to the prosperity and good feeling of the two countries.

THE SECURITY OF RAILWAY BONDS.

JUDGING from recent events, it seems correct to say that views once held about the sacredness of corporate mortgages have been much weakened. Not many years ago a railway company was considered bound, not only by mortgage, but upon honor, to pay the interest and the principal of its funded debt in full. But latterly exchanges of underlying bonds into a "blanket mortgage," or the scaling down of principal and interest charges, are proposed without exciting general remark; the sole question being whether the suggested plan has backing enough to be carried through. In such a case the holders of a minority of the bonds are usually helpless, and find themselves obliged to accept whatever terms may be offered.

We often hear it said that minority stockholders have very few rights in a corporation. After all possible safeguards have been thrown by law around minority ownership, it still remains true that a majority must rule, and that those opposed must submit to the management of the greater number. But this reasoning does not apply to bondholders. Stockholders are partners in the enterprise, participating in its profits and properly controlling its policy. On the contrary, bondholders are creditors, from whom the money used by the share-owners has been borrowed on certain specific conditions. Every holder of a single bond, though in a hopeless minority, is yet an investor who, by all the rules of law and justice, should be treated with scrupulous fairness, and in strict and honorable compliance with the terms of his contract, by the corporation which has his money. That corporation can excuse non-payment only through absolute inability.

It is indeed possible that a railway may be unable to pay its debts or fixed charges, and that its capitalization must in consequence be readjusted to its earnings. In such a case its bonds, no matter how stringent in terms, are worth only what the property is worth. Foreclosure could not disclose a method of drawing from the railway any new profit; and so it is often wiser to accept the final values through the shorter course of a reorganization. But from this fact and procedure the idea has slowly grown that if the junior securities require readjustment, the occasion should be seized to cut down the underlying liens as well. Instances will be recalled by every one of reorganizations of railways having complicated capitalizations, where the first mortgages on indispensable parts of the system have suffered with the less valuable mortgages. So far as now known, the proposed Richmond Terminal plan is open to this objection as to the good mortgages on the proprietary roads. Another instance is where a struggling road is purchased by a stronger system. Its bonds have been of uncertain value, and, though paying a rate of interest higher than that of good roads, are quoted below par. Upon the change of ownership, what is the duty of the purchasing company? In a case now under discussion it is claimed that the purchased line has not earned its interest; yet its reports for past years did not disclose the fact. Naturally enough, the controlling system wishes to adjust the fixed charges of the little road to its past earnings, so that any increase arising from the combination shall accrue to the system. Suppose, however, that a minority of the bondholders do not like the terms proposed to them, and ask for the carrying out of the contract of mortgage, or for the repayment to them of the face of their loan. Being in a minority, according to some present theories, their wishes can be disregarded and they can be forced to accept whatever terms they can obtain. Yet, looked at in the light of a bona-fide contract entered into by the corporation on the one side and the capitalist on the other, these bondholders should be given the benefit of the doubt which now hangs over the question of the actual earning capacity of the road when independent, and should be treated liberally in view of the better prospects now opening before the company. Another instance, the same in spirit though not in letter, is that of the South Carolina Railway. Though subject to a year of misfortunes following the earthquake, that company seems abundantly able to pay more than the interest on its first and second mortgages. Yet it is sought to foreclose these mortgages on technical grounds, though no commercial reasons exist to excuse that action.

In all these cases and in many more which will occur to our readers, one fundamental idea may be found—that a railway bond is not a "security" whose sacredness the stockholders are bound in honor to uphold, but rather that the bondholder is fair game, provided only that some chance occurs through which he may be worried out of his money. It is a fact that many European capitalists are coming to have something like a distrust of American investments on this very account. An English or German investor hesitates at times about buying our bonds. A particular mortgage looks safe enough, but, he says, we cannot tell what may soon happen, and we know that Americans will cut down our principal or interest on the first opportunity. It does not need extended argument to show that such distrust of American bonds at home and abroad is hurtful to our best interests, nor to prove that credit is worth all it costs, nor that the corporate honesty which leans towards the creditors is the best policy. We are indignant at the proposed Bland Bill, which would compel the ordinary creditor to take silver in payment of his debt at one-third less than its face value in gold, but we ought also to be sure that in other ways we are not violating the same rule of justice. All must acknowledge that it is not easy at times to draw a line distinguishing between real inability to pay corporate debts and a desire to escape payment through a combination of circumstances. Yet it is a line which should always be drawn so as to guard the interests of the creditor in every way possible.

RUSSIAN RAILWAYS AND EXPORTS.

PARIS, February 4, 1892.

M. PONTZEN is a distinguished civil engineer

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who has written a voluminous book on American railroads. He has lately been sent by the French Government on a mission to Russia, in order to study the Russian railroads, especially in their relation to the exportation of cereals. Western Europe becomes unable to feed its people, and we have yearly to import cereals from the east of Europe and from the United States. I have twice visited Sicily, even in its interior; it used to be called the granary of Rome. It is a very poor granary now, and bears very thin crops. It is the same with many of the old corn-growing districts; their fertility can be kept up only by expensive additions of manure, of phosphates and nitrates. The enormous extent of Russia and the nature of its still unexhausted soil give a great interest to that country, in an agricultural point of view. This year it is in some parts desolated by a famine, and the Government has been obliged to forbid the exportation of wheat on its eastern frontier; but this only proves that Russia is still in the undeveloped state in which were most of the Occidental countries before the great development of their roads and railways. The report made by M. Pontzen on the means of communication in Russia is extremely interesting; it shows clearly that everything in this great empire is, directly or indirectly, the work of the Government. There is an official department of railways, which is more active than the ordinary bureaus of public administration, and which exercises a commanding influence over the building and the working of the Russian railways.

The production and exportation of cereals constitute the chief source of wealth in Russia; from 1867 to 1889 the exportation has steadily grown. From 1867 to 1871 it was 2,448,400 tons; from 1872 to 1876, 3,275,500 tons; from 1877 to 1881, 4,628,400 tons; from 1882 to 1886, 5,116,300 tons; from 1887 to 1889, 7,325,000 tons. In Russia itself the consumption is not very variable: it is about 220 kilogrammes per year for each inhabitant. The exportation of cereals, which, between 1870 and 1879, represented only 14.7 per cent. of the total production, rose to 20.5 per cent. during the period 1883–1889. It takes place chiefly by way of the eastern and southern frontiers. It is reckoned that from 1885 to 1888, 37 per cent. of the total exportation took the eastern road and 54 per cent. the southern. The ports of the Black Sea, of the Sea of Azov, of the Baltic, are the chief centres of this exportation. Odessa, St. Petersburg, Rostov, Libau, Nikolaiev, Königsberg, Dantzic, Sebastopol, Riga, Taganrog, Reval, Mariupol, are the most important, and I have placed them in the order of their importance.

Nobody can rival Russia in the markets which she furnishes with cereals except the United States. Where Russia sends 35 tons of cereals, you may say that the United States send 33; such is the present proportion, according to official statistics. Together, Russia and the United States provide 68 tons out of every 100 tons bought in the European markets; after them, at a great distance, come Rumania (8 tons), India (7.5 tons), Austria-Hungary (4.3), the Argentine Republic (3.6), Canada (2.8), Australia (2.3), Sweden (1.6), Chili (0.8), Servia (0.7). These figures are very eloquent; if it were not for Russia and the United States, Europe would starve. I have been surprised at the importance of Rumania; its exportation augurs well for the future of this kingdom, made out of the ancient principalities of the valley of the Danube. France receives a great quantity of Russian cereals at Marseilles, and hence a curious phenomenon: while we import in the south, chiefly from Russia, we export in the north, chiefly to England. A sort of current or stream of cereals constantly runs through the country, much to the benefit of the railways.

It is not for me to write of your American elevators. I have wondered at the gigantic buildings which play the part of reservoirs for the great streams of cereals which run from the West to the East of the United States. I need not explain their utility or working. These great receptacles are called in Europe *silos*. The original silo was a mere hole dug in the ground and covered, after it was filled, with earth. When the Russians began to export cereals on a large scale, they thought it necessary merely to make *silos* at the ports of exportation. At Rostov, as well as at Taganrog, the docks are not very well placed, and wheat often receives but an imperfect covering in wooden sheds. At Odessa, silos having a capacity of 27,000 tons have just been finished; they are placed at several kilometres from the port, but are united to it by a railway.

The silos are useful, but they cannot serve as regulators between the ports and the centres of production. The Russian Government is much preoccupied now with the necessity of having elevators in these centres of production. The Government banks make advances on the cereals which are deposited in the storehouses; the advances being for as much as two-thirds of the value, and bearing an interest of 7 per cent., which seems rather high. But the private banks have followed the example of the Russian Bank, and make better terms for the producers. The ports of the Sea of Azov (Rostov on the Don, Taganrog, and Mariupol) and those of the Black Sea (Sebastopol, Odessa, and Novorossisk) have been much improved, but are not yet in the best condition. Novorossisk is quite a new port, having been in use only three years, that is to say, since the railway to Vladikavkaz was finished. The exportations are rapidly increasing, and it has a great future. It has the advantage over Odessa of never being blocked by ice.

I need not describe here the arrangements which have been made for the rapid shipping of grain. M. Pontzen has been chiefly concerned, in his report, with the movement of cereals on the railroads and with the tariffs established by the Russian Government. In a purely autocratic country, it is not surprising that these tariffs have been determined by the Government, or under its dictation. The principle which has been adopted is a gradual diminution of the kilometric tariff as the distance increases. The kilometric ton pays 7.15 centimes from 1 to 213 kilometres, 6.44 centimes from 213 to 384 kilometres, 2.15 centimes from 384 to 1,707 kilometres, 0.86 centimes from 1,707 to 3,200 kilometres. This tariff, though made for the transport of cereals to the ports of exportation, applies equally to interior transportation.

At the end of 1888 the network of Russian railroads comprised 26,884 kilometres; 4,965 were directly administered by the State, the other 21,919 kilometres were in the hands of forty-nine companies. The issues of securities necessary for the construction of all these lines amounted to 9,200,000,000 francs; the shares amounted to 1,803,875,329 francs, the bonds to 7,404,990,135. The Government guarantees the interest on all these bonds. It may be said that on an average each kilometre earns 31,516 francs, though the net earning is no more than 13,618. This does not amount to 4 per cent. on the capital invested, and the guaranteed interest is 5 or sometimes 6. The railways thus become every year a source of expense for the State, especially as the interest on a majority of the bonds is payable abroad in gold, and there is a wide margin between the paper ruble and gold. In fact, the Government spent in 1888, 124,535,380 francs for the payment of interest on the bonds emitted for the establishment of the railroads. But the State recoups itself, partly at least, by the higher rates levied on fast freights.

Great efforts have still to be made in order to complete the organization of the vast system of transportation for cereals in Russia. M. Pontzen believes that ten years at least are necessary to make it as perfect as it can be. Russia has not alone commercial interests in view; in her present state she could not mobilize her immense army with the same rapidity as Germany or France. Between these last two countries there has been for several years, and there is still, a sort of race on this question of mobilization. Our generals are obliged to count the days and almost the hours which a general mobilization would require; our railway officers have had to make every preparation for such an emergency. Russia is far behind in this respect; she is incapable of mobilizing her army with great rapidity. We must, therefore, much as we may admire her defensive powers, consider that she cannot conduct an offensive war against Germany with great advantage. Germany and Austria are thoroughly prepared for such an aggression; they could bring immediately enormous forces against an invading Russian army. These possibilities of war are, alas! always in our minds, though we always speak of peace. For the present there is a sort of lull in our European politics; but at any moment questions may arise which would be difficult to solve. "Si vis pacem, para bellum." Russia, if she wishes to follow this dictum, has two difficult tasks: she must reorganize her administration, which is too corrupt; she must complete her network of railways.

OLD MASTERS AT THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, January, 1892.

SHORTLY before the opening of the winter exhibition in Burlington House, I was talking to a Royal Academician, and I asked him what would be done when the supply of old masters in the country gives out. For the Royal Academy's "winter atonement," as it is jocularly called, is always as delightful as the summer show is deplorable, and, this year's being the twenty-third, it does not seem possible that private picture collections can stand the annual drain much longer. But they would just begin exhibiting them all over again, was the R.A.'s answer, since nobody really remembered them from one year to another.

However, the supply is not yet quite exhausted. It is true that some of the canvases included in the present collection have been seen in comparatively recent years. The R.A. notwithstanding, there has not been time for everybody to forget Raphael's large "Crucifixion," with its Perugino-like skipping angels and Tuscan background, originally painted for the Gavari Chapel at San Domenico, Città di Castello, and now hung again, apparently for the convenience of its latest owner, the Earl of Dudley, who prefers horses to art, and who seems to be using the Royal Academy as a show-room for the Italian work he is anxious to sell. Then there is the little "Listener," by Nicholas Maes, from Buckingham Palace, which reappears periodically; and

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there are several others pleasantly recognized as old friends.

Still, on the whole, the exhibition is far from being a mere repetition. In general interest it holds its own with those that have preceded it. The canvases to be passed unnoticed are in as marked a minority as will be those worth stopping for among the mediocrities destined to cover the same walls in a few months to come. On the other hand, there is nothing of supreme importance, like the Velasquez and Rembrandt series which have made previous winter shows so memorable. No great treasures have been suddenly unearthed for the benefit of the nation; no one man is specially represented, as Frank Holl and Alfred Stevens have been on two different occasions; no one school takes preëminence, unless, indeed, it be the British. In the Italian, German, Dutch, and Flemish sections—the Spaniards are omitted entirely—there is as high an average of excellence as in many a permanent exhibition of fame, but not an individual master who cannot be studied to better advantage in the National Gallery. In the British, however, are some of the most distinguished examples of the most distinguished painters.

The oftener one sees the work of the primitives, the more one is convinced that a picture gallery is the last place to see it in. The Earl of Dudley, whose collection is rich in the early Italians, has sent, for the inspection of possible purchasers, his Giottos and Fra Angelicos, his Crivellis and Botticellis, his Peruginos and Francias, which are to bring him so many horses in exchange. All are curious and interesting and good of their kind; but as they are but mere parts of a large decorative whole, we must confess, were we only honest, that, away from the altar screen or cloister wall for which they were designed, half their artistic charm and all their beauty of appropriateness are lost. Shown in fragments, their conventionality is over-aggressive, so that where there is great strength of character in types or loveliness of color in any one canvas, it at once asserts itself and stands out in striking relief among the others, as does a wonderful "Virgin and Child and Angels" by Piero della Francesca. The faces of the angels are those you still see among many of the youths in Italian monastery or seminary, the color of the crimson draperies against a neutral gray background is a pleasure in itself. The later Italians are represented either but indifferently well or else not at all, except Titian and Tintoretto, who lend to one side of a large room something of the glory of the Doge's Palace in Venice, though the naked female figure in the former's "Omnia Vanitas" forces upon one a not altogether favorable comparison with that perfect Venus by Velasquez which hung in almost exactly the same place two years ago, and though Tintoretto has adorned church and palace with many a nobler composition than his "Apollo and Marsyas." It is really his two Senators, quiet and dignified, and full of character, in their gorgeous crimson robes of office, which duly uphold the greatness of the great Venetians, and serve as reminder, were one necessary, that, as colorists and portrait-painters, Reynolds and Romney, who make such a strong showing on the opposite wall, are not supreme.

To those who have been to many winter exhibitions at the Royal Academy, the Germans and Flemings and Dutchmen must be a disappointment. Their art has been so consummately illustrated in previous years that the absence of masterpieces by them seems but the more conspicuous. The few primitives are successful enough. The Earl of Dudley has come to the fore again with a little "Celebration of High Mass," by Van Eyck, full of his careful study of faces and detail; and the Queen has contributed a large "Adoration of the Magi," by Lucas van Leyden. But it is not among the primitives one looks for the highest expression of Dutch and Flemish and German art; and of the masters of a later age there is no epoch-making work, no picture or portrait of more than usual note. The painters of small cabinet pictures suffer as much from being seen in a large gallery as the earlier decorators of church and monastery. When their canvases are hung together, one can but kill the other; and even if they are not so overcrowded here as in those endless cabinets of Dresden or Vienna, many are overlooked which, seen alone, might make quite a different and striking impression. As it is, but two, a little interior by Peter de Hooghe, and another version of his well-known model by Vermeer of Delft, maintain their proper distinction. It is no wonder that the occasional painter to-day who can afford to keep his work out of the public market, objects to sending it to the average picture show, and prefers electric light and red hangings to the test of contrast with other and perhaps better things. One fine but very small head of a man, by Rembrandt, the hanging committee, with their usual discrimination, have skied, so that it virtually cannot be seen; while the other Rembrandt, which must always have been somewhat commonplace, looks as if the restorer had been tampering with it of late. There is a fairly good Franz Hals, the portrait of a blonde man, with slightly insipid face, in black and holding his yellow gloves carelessly in one hand, but it is not quite up to the standard of the National Gallery portrait. And when I say that Van Dyck and Rubens are seen in their most pot-boiling and least artistic moods—Rubens on one canvas of the painted-photograph species, collaborating with Snyders to show how marvellously well both could do what no artist ought ever to attempt—I have said enough to make it clear that this division is the least satisfactory of all.

It seems as if special care must have been devoted to the selection of British work. Certainly, the assortment of those later "deceased British masters," as the catalogue calls them, who ought to be allowed to die a speedy and natural death, is not so lavish as of yore, while the examples of the true masters are of more than ordinary merit. Gainsborough, for instance, almost overshadows his greater contemporaries. The wide range of his powers is shown in the equal excellence, though not charm, of his Mrs. Portman, a large, elderly lady, in rather shapeless skirts, whose face, however, with none of its plainness or the signs of age toned down, is one of the strongest he ever painted, and of his beautiful Mrs. Billington, young and fair, her head, with its mass of golden hair, set against one of his most effective tapestry-like backgrounds. Actresses, from Nell Gwynn to Ivette Guilbert, have always inspired portrait-painters, and if the "Mrs. Billington" is the most charming Gainsborough here, there is no more beautiful Romney than the "Mrs. Jordan," as *Peggy* in "The Country Girl," which has been engraved so often that it is one of the best-known of his pictures. There are other Gainsboroughs, distinguished men and women of his time; and other Romneys, prettily affected beauties posing in front of wide landscapes or rich masses of foliage; and there are strong Sir Joshuas—the little girls from whom painters of our generation have borrowed all the sentiment and none of the technique; the portrait of Mrs. Seaforth and her child, glowing with a golden light which would not be unworthy of Titian.

But when all is said, the interest centres about the comparatively few landscapes. I do not mean the Turners, which vary from his strange messes of color, perhaps good once, before they faded, now but grotesque parodies, to his stately classical compositions and his large, genuinely powerful seas. Nor do I mean the landscapes of Richard Wilson, an R.A. in his day, who to the classicism of Poussin and Claude added a decided individuality—that is to say, a style of his own which makes his work always worth looking at. Both belonged to the old conventional school, of which they were among the most distinguished exponents. But they can have no more lasting influence on the landscape-painters of future generations than Giotto and Cimabue have on the portrait-painters of to-day. The men who broke away from the old traditions and infused new life into landscape-painting, who endeavored to paint Nature as they saw her, and not according to certain accepted formulas, were Constable and Bonington, and, after them, Crome and Cotman and the Norwich group, never adequately recognized until after their death. There is but little of their work, but that little, to the artist, is of as much value as, if not more than, anything in the collection. The one fine Constable has for subject the opening of Waterloo Bridge in June, 1817, with Whitehall Stairs in the foreground; and the large distance which Constable always loved, and always treated with such masterly effect, shows the great sweep of the Thames from Charing Cross to the Temple, with the dome of St. Paul's rising still further beyond. The foreground suffers somewhat from that curious way he had of flecking his canvas with white, which, carried to excess, threatened to degenerate into spottiness, as indeed it did with his too careful imitators—a fact well illustrated by the large and vigorous outdoor sketch of Müller's, hanging in another room, which at a glance might pass for a poor Constable. How little the movement, of which Müller's work was the result, was appreciated at first, receives new proof in the indignant inscription which, the catalogue explains, is written on the back of this sketch and signed with Müller's initials: "Left as a sketch for some fool to *finish* and ruin."

I have seen much better examples of Bonington and Crome at other times and elsewhere, but nothing to excel the one large canvas by Cotman, a stretch of hilly country, with here and there a windmill rising against a brilliant sunset, put in with the utmost simplicity, but with the unerring truth of the master who knows how to see for himself and to record his impressions in his own way. It was but in the natural order of things that, in a country like England, painters who have had the widest influence, not on mere provincial academies, but on the art of the whole world, who were the admitted forerunners of the Barbizon school, and the creators of modern landscape-painting, should have received none of the honors that it was in the power of their fellow-artists or the nation to bestow upon them. I know that Constable was made an Academician, but he was not allowed to enjoy his official rank in peace, while the most popular and prejudiced so-called art critic that England has yet produced, has wasted pages and chapters of his rhetoric in the effort to damn him to all eternity—an effort as unsuc-

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cessful, however, as all of Mr. Ruskin's technical criticism. Bonington (it may be said because he was still too young when he died, though youth did not stand in the way of a characterless sentimentalist like Mr. Frank Dicksee), Müller, Crome, Cotman (and in their case there is no possible excuse) never shared the privileges of the Royal Academy, though, at the time they lived and worked, obscure painters, now forgotten, were thought qualified to write the magical (that is, magical with the public) initials R. A. after their names. But mediocrity and respectability have always, with some very notable exceptions, been the rule in the Academy. And if, as this exhibition reminds one, an unquestionably mediocre artist like Morland was sometimes left in the same distinguished outer darkness as Crome and Cotman, it was simply because socially he was found wanting. He was usually sottishly drunk.

A series of the real British water colors is again included, but it is not so complete as last year's collection. Cotman, in this department also, maintains his supremacy: he understood the art, and his sketches of landscape and architecture are crisp, and strong, and simple. De Wint, too, when he was content not to elaborate all art out of his work, was vigorous in his out-door impressions. And often Turner's sketches are delightful as notes of strong pure color. Of such work at its very best, too many examples cannot be shown. But nothing can redeem from utter dreariness the lifeless studies of Prout and the labored sentimentalities of William Hunt. It were charity to consign them to the bonfire or to Mr. Orrock, their prophet. N. N.

Correspondence.

KIRK'S ALLIBONE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I must ask permission to occupy a little of your space with some comments on your recent criticism of my 'Supplement to Allibone's Dictionary.' You decline to express an opinion in regard to the general accuracy of the work, and your notice deals chiefly with its defects. The former point I leave to the test of use and time, and to the candid judgment of those who can appreciate the difficulties of the task. But I venture to call in question the correctness of some of your strictures, and the importance of them all as affecting the ultimate verdict.

You say that I have made no mention of "E. Walford, the author of a Life of Bayard." This statement, short as it is, involves three errors: (1.) Walford was not the author, but the translator, or more probably the editor of the translation—for his preface leaves the matter in doubt—of the little book referred to. (2.) This "E. Walford" is Edward Walford, a well-known miscellaneous writer, and, far from having made no mention of him, I have given him half a column, in continuation of a column given to him by Allibone. (3.) The book was published in 1867, and as Allibone brought down his entries under the later letters of the alphabet to 1870, the omission, such as it is, was not mine, but his.

Another writer whom you say I have not mentioned is "E. W. Davies, a novelist." This is a mistake. I have mentioned him by his full name, Edgar William Davies. You further say that I have made no mention of "William Barnett Phillips, who was an author so early as 1867." This is correct; but his authorship seems to have ended as well as begun in that year, which, under the letter P, does not fall within the period covered by the 'Supplement,' and I had the less occasion to mention it that it was duly recorded by Allibone.

You say also that I have made no mention of "A. A. Graham, who wrote not only a history of Indiana (1876, 750 pp.), but also ten large histories of counties in Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois." This is not quite correct, as I have mentioned him under the name of a writer with whom he collaborated in the production of some county histories. For the rest, I can only plead that I have been the victim of a conspiracy of silence in regard to this eminent and voluminous author. There is no record of his achievements in any catalogue or other bibliographical work known to me, nor are they to be found in any collection to which I have had access, or about which I have been able to obtain information. They are not in the Public Library of Cincinnati, of Cleveland, or of Indianapolis, where one might especially expect to find them; nor in the library of the British Museum, for which particular pains are taken to collect books of this description; nor, as I am informed, in the Library of Congress, to which, if copyrighted, the law would have required them to be sent. I do not for a moment question their existence, but the knowledge of them, if not strictly a private possession, is at least one from which I have been debarred.

Of actual blunders or *mis*statements in my book you have detected some half-a-dozen. Three of these are wrong dates—slips of the pen or of the types, such as occasionally occur even in the catalogue of the library of the British Museum. The others—like some of a more serious nature than any which you have pointed out—originated with the authorities, generally trustworthy, on which I relied. I will cite, in exemplification, one of the instances you give: "In the case of Elizabeth and 'Emily' Bellamy, one author is made into two." 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography' ascribes to "Emily" the two books, published under a pseudonym which I accordingly entered under that name. The title-page of the other book is entered in the 'American Catalogue' and in other catalogues under the name of "Elizabeth," with no indication that she was the author of the former works, published many years earlier. There were too many pitfalls of this kind to allow of the hope that I had avoided them all.

But your indictment is founded mainly on my sins of omission—failure to give biographical data respecting some not very conspicuous or prolific writers (you might have enlarged the list indefinitely)—failure to detect as pseudonyms several names which you say are obviously such, but all of which, with one exception, are well-known family names; failure to mention the change of name by marriage in the case of certain ladies whose names I have given as they appear on the title-pages of their books. I regret all the faults of my work, but these, I fancy, will be thought by most persons to merit but light penance. The maxim *de minimis* has evidently, however, no place in your rulings, for it is on such evidence that you charge me with having shown "want of care" and with having been "decidedly remiss" in the execution of a task on which I expended several years of strenuous and conscientious labor. The mistakes and oversights, real and imaginary, all of them comparatively trivial, which you have enumerated do not amount to one-fiftieth of one per cent. in the whole number of my statements—biographical and bibliographical. On the other hand, I have pointed out errors amounting to several per cent. in your statements—errors, not of omission, but of commission; errors occurring, not incidentally in a work filled with innumerable details, and designed simply to communicate information, but in a couple of paragraphs, directed solely to the exposure of my ignorance and incompetence.

It is natural, perhaps, that there should be more joy in the critical soul over the one statement that can be corrected than over the ninety-and-nine just statements that need no correction; but, in order that this sentiment should be one of full serenity, the critic, one would think, should himself be impeccable. —Very respectfully yours,

John Foster Kirk.

Philadelphia, February 13, 1892.

[We will not enforce against Mr. Kirk our general rule not to print rejoinders to our reviews. As we made no pretence to an *exhaustive* examination of his two volumes, he should not plume himself on the fact that the errors we pointed out "do not amount to one-fiftieth of one per cent. in the whole number" of his statements. Each critic will be likely to test such a work on one or two lines with which he is most familiar. We took care to say that while we had noticed "several" errors, "we should hesitate to say that they were numerous in proportion to the total number of statements." We regret that Mr. Kirk should attribute to our remarks a severity which was not intended: examination of the context of the phrases quoted will relieve us of the imputation. We did not say that the editor was guilty of "want of care" or of having been "decidedly remiss" with reference to the work as a whole, but in two particulars only. We maintain that our criticism here was justified.

We cannot allow that our review indicated inability to "appreciate the difficulties of the task," or that it "dealt chiefly with the defects" of the work. We will say now, however, that a more thorough, though limited, examination of the 'Supplement' makes us quite ready to believe that, as Mr. Kirk says, he has discovered errors "of a more serious nature than any which we have pointed out." He lays the blame of these errors on his "authorities"—that is, previous compilers—which leads us to say that, while using all works of the sort for what they are worth, he ought not to have relied upon them. The alternative to doing this was to base his statements on contemporary reviews and advertisements. We have now tested the work by comparing its entries with the record of the American books published during the year 1859 and the early part of 1860, in so far as these were mentioned in some of the magazines of the day. Of books so mentioned (but a small proportion, of course, of all published) the following escaped the attention of Messrs. Allibone and Kirk: J. S. C. Abbott, 'South and North' (New York, 1860); Histories of Austria, Russia, and Italy, three vols., large 8vo (New York, 1859-'60); J. W. Alexander, 'Letters' (New

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York, 1860, two vols.); Samuel Batchelder, jr., 'Poetry of Bells' (Boston, 1859); Joseph Belcher, 'Historical Sketches of Hymns' (Philadelphia, 1859); George Bishop, 'Every Woman Her Own Lawyer' (New York, 1859); R. B. Carroll, 'History of the United States' (Charleston, 1859, 309 pp.), interesting as an attempt to provide a narrative for Southern readers free from the perversions, respecting slavery, universal in Northern publications; G. W. P. Custis, 'Recollections of Washington' (New York, 1860, 644 pp.); S. S. Cutting, 'Historical Vindications' (Boston, 1859); F. M. Dimmick, 'Anna Clayton,' a religious novel (Philadelphia, 1859); D. S. Durrie, 'Steele Genealogy' (Albany, 1859); J. M. Field, 'Major Thorpe' (New York, 1859); C. F. Fairfield, 'Aguecheek,' a book of foreign travel (Boston, 1859); Eliza Lee Follen, 'Home Dramas' (Boston, 1859, 441 pp.); H. C. Goodwin, 'Pioneer History' (New York, 1859, 456 pp.); H. Harbaugh, 'Poems' (Philadelphia, 1859); A. M. Hillside, 'Geology' (Philadelphia, 1859); J. H. Ingraham, 'The Pillar of Fire' (New York, 1859), as well as 'The Throne of David' (Philadelphia, 1860)—Bible novels which enjoyed enormous popularity and are still sold—and 'The Sunny South,' edited by the same hand (Philadelphia, 1859); Meredith Jones, 'Boys' Book of Modern Travel' (New York, 1859); P. R. Leatherman, 'Moral Science,' a volume of pro-slavery ethics (Philadelphia, 1859); J. McLennan, 'Fisher's River' (1859); Elizabeth Sara Sheppard, 'Almost a Heroine' (Boston, 1859); George H. Derby, the well-known humorist, entered under pseudonym only, while "Doesticks," another representative of American humor ('Witches of New York,' N. Y., 1859, and 'Elephant Club') is entirely ignored; H. N. Day, 'Art of Elocution,' 384 pp.; George S. Fisher, 'Law of the Territories,' reviewed at length in the *Atlantic* (Philadelphia, 1860); J. C. Mangan, 'Poems,' recently the subject of a long magazine article (New York, 1859); S. B. Beckett, 'Hester,' a poem, also reviewed in *Atlantic* (1860). "Walter Aimwell" is not recognized as a pseudonym of Walter Simonds, and only one out of a series of six books published by him in 1859 and earlier is given.

Here are books in almost all branches of literature; but if we test the 'Dictionary' by a shelf of books of one kind only, we shall notice an equal number of omissions. Thus, of Massachusetts local histories no mention is made of 'Abington,' by D. Hobart, 1866; 'Boxford,' by S. Perley, 1880; 'Bradford,' by J. D. Kingsbury, 1883; 'Brookline,' by H. F. Woods, 1874; 'Gardner,' by W. D. Herrick, 1878; 'Great Barrington,' by C. J. Taylor, 1882; 'Lee,' by C. M. Hyde, 1878; 'Lexington,' by C. Hudson, 1868. The reader will observe that this list includes less than half the alphabet of one State only.

Mr. Kirk says that our statement concerning E. Walford "involves three errors," and alleges that "This E. Walford is Edward Walford, a well-known miscellaneous writer." In criticising the book referred to, the *Athenæum's* critic made the same assumption as Mr. Kirk, whereon the "well-known miscellaneous writer" pointed out that this E. Walford was *not* he. As to A. A. Graham, Mr. Kirk will find full bibliographic details in the annual report of the American Historical Association for 1889. The report was not published in season for Mr. Kirk to use it, but the character and size of the works named would justify a librarian in expecting to find mention of them in Mr. Kirk's 'Dictionary,' for, notwithstanding the maxim *de minimis*, it is for information concerning obscure authors that we largely prize a dictionary of this class.—Ed. Nation.]

SCIENCE IN AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to make a few additions to your remarks relating to Mr. Stille's letter in your issue of February 11 on "Science in America." In addition to the courses mentioned in Prof. Cajori's report, Clark University offers several courses in modern geometry, in which, in connection with lectures, the treatises of Von Staudt, Reye, Cremona, and Klein (lecture notes) are used. Courses are also given in the less generally treated subjects of non-Euclidian and enumerative geometry. Ten years ago the writer obtained his first introduction to the fascinating subject of projective geometry in a sophomore course at Harvard, given by Prof. Byerly, which now, unfortunately, seems to have disappeared. At Harvard, also, a very rich course in the theory of functions, according to Cauchy, Riemann, and Weierstrass, was introduced some six years ago, and came to stay. I hardly need state that the same subject, now recognized as the backbone of all that part of mathematics having to do with the infinitesimal analysis, finds ample representation (and is, as you say, *really* studied) at Clark University, as well as are its natural successors, the theories of elliptic and Abelian functions. In fact, as far as concerns the theory of functions, it seems to me that things are not so bad in this country as your correspondent would have us infer, as most of the colleges making any pretensions to advanced work now offer courses in the subject.

On the other hand, it seems to call for remark that a subject which has for the last twenty-five years occupied the attention of some of the keenest mathematical minds of the Continent—the theory of the functions defined by linear differential equations—has hardly received notice in our universities; and the number of the latter at which courses are given on the subject may be easily counted on the fingers of one hand, the thumb being barred. The fact that no book has appeared in this country treating of a subject (as alleged by your correspondent for projective geometry), is not always a fair criterion of the attention given a subject, since in the case of the subject just mentioned a thick volume has been published by Prof. Craig of Johns Hopkins, with a second volume promised.

Your correspondent asks how many readers of the *Nation* know anything of the work of Steiner. I should like to add: "Nay, more, how many know anything of Gauss?" But I submit that this is too much. We cannot ask the American public to bother itself about Steiner and Gauss, or even Newton, when it has all it can do to keep itself informed about the wonderful discoveries that Edison is probably going to make. Helmholtz is still alive, but his name is seldom in the papers. If I should speak of Thomson, I should feel safer in stating that I meant Sir William, and not "Thomson-Houston." After all, if Thomson's name is not quite unfamiliar, it is probably because of his inventions in regard to cable telegraphy and his electrical measuring instruments rather than because of his being a great physicist.

In this connection and in conclusion, let me quote the following as characteristically American. A few weeks ago one of the electrical journals cited, as showing the "tremendous advance of electrical science in the last few years," the statement of a "prominent inventor" that twenty years ago he prided himself on possessing the largest electrical library in the country, and that it consisted of five volumes. He now finds in the list of works sold by the journal in question two hundred and fifty odd. Shade of Faraday! Twenty years ago Maxwell's greatest paper had been published seven years, and Faraday, Ampère, Gauss, Poisson, and Green had lived, worked, and died. And yet a "prominent inventor" could raise only five books on electricity, and we are led to infer that the greater part of our knowledge of electricity has come since then! How long shall this country confuse "prominent inventors" with men of science?—Very truly yours,

Arthur G. Webster.

Worcester, Mass., February 13, 1892.

CHRISTIANITY, PRIMITIVE AND MODERN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is much truth in your article on "Modern Church Membership" in the *Nation*, February 4, which may well be heeded by modern Christians; but you miss, as you naturally would from your philosophical point of view, the chief characteristic of the Christian Church, which, if understood, would explain the matter of which you write.

The Church, in the esteem of the primitive Christians, was not an association of godly men uniting for good works. It was the mystical body of the Lord Jesus Christ, possessing, through the gift of the Holy Spirit, divine powers for the regeneration of human nature, the redemption of souls from sin, the uplifting of the human race by imparting the life of Christ to those who were made members of the body. Thus the special work of the Church was to seek for sinners to bring them to repentance, to rescue those who were lost, to inject into the corrupted shell of paganism the life of the Son of God, and raise to a new existence that which was "dead in trespasses and sins."

As you well say, the receiving of such a repentant sinner as you describe was the usual work of the Church, and it is now frequently. There would be no question regarding it, were it not for the fact that the philosophical view of religion which you take has prevailed among many who are called Christians, depriving them of ability to discern that Christ Jesus is the power of the Church through the working of the Holy Spirit. It is safe to say that this philosophic view will never have any large influence in improving the world, for it never has had hitherto, and never possessed life enough to continue its existence except as it assumed the appearance and ideas of the

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Christian Church without having its inner power.

The contrast between the futility of Seneca's philosophy and the divine life of the Christian Church, redeeming the world, is shown strongly in Archdeacon Farrar's 'Darkness and Dawn.' One can scarcely read that story without recognizing the source of the power by which Christ's Church prevailed over the degraded humanity of the Roman Empire and lifted it up to light and health. In the present age, when the forces of the world and the evil elements accompanying our boasted civilization and the philosophical indifference which sets itself above the idea of sharing the warmth of souls fired by the spirit of God, are bringing back many of the conditions which were in pagan Rome in the first century of our era, we can certainly answer your query by declaring that the restoration of primitive Christianity is desirable, and it is possible if we maintain the Apostolic conception of the Church of Christ.—Yours, J. H. Watson.

[Our correspondent should have noticed that we wrote as commentators, not advocates; and hence that any "view" he is pleased to attribute to us is quite gratuitous.—Ed. Nation.]

AUGHT AND NAUGHT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I believe that most Americans who will take the pains to bring back to mind the days of their childhood, will remember that they and their companions called the arithmetical *0* "aught," and that their teacher did the same when she "wasn't thinking," or did not guard herself against the danger by using "cipher" or "zero" instead of the troublesome English word. A visit to almost any schoolroom, East or West, will reveal the fact that it is now as it used to be. How it is in England I do not know, and should be glad to learn.

The explanation of this interesting phenomenon occurred to me some time ago. It is a case of improper analysis of sentence amalgamation. When a teacher first tells her little ones, "This is a naught, this is a two," etc., or when she says, "Now place a naught after the seven," she, of course, says *ənɔt*, just as she pronounces "an eight" *əneit;* and as the child analyzes the latter he analyzes the former, and reads 8–5–0 as "eight, five, aught." The same thing has happened, as is well known, in other words, notably in *an adder* from *a nadder;* cf. also *apron*, *auger*, *umpire*, etc.

In consideration of the fact that *0* is called "aught" about ninety-nine times to once "naught," is it not about time to "recognize" usage in this case too? George Hempl.

Ann Arbor, Mich., February 9, 1892.

[We can supply at least one classical use of *aught* which would have entitled the word to a place in Dr. Murray's Dictionary. In the first series of the 'Biglow Papers' Lowell wrote:

"Wy, into Bellers's we notched the votes down on three sticks,—
'Twuz Birdofredum *one*, Cass *aught*, an' Taylor *twenty six*."

—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready 'Selections from Lucian,' translated by Emily James Smith; 'Roweny in Boston,' by Maria Louise Pool; 'That Angelic Woman,' by James M. Ludlow; 'In the Vestibule Limited,' by Brander Matthews; 'Lord Palmerston,' by the Marquis of Lorne; and 'Concerning All of Us,' selections from Mr. T. W. Higginson's periodic contributions to the *Bazar*, uniform with the little volumes made up from Curtis, Warner, and Howells.

Mr. John Fiske's 'Discovery of America'; 'Personality,' by the Rev. S. R. Fuller; and 'The Rescue of the Old Place,' by Mrs. Mary Caroline Robbins, are in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Little, Brown & Co. will publish during the spring 'A Half Century of Conflict,' the final volume in Francis Parkman's "French and English in North America."

J. B. Lippincott Co. will soon issue "The Tempest," the ninth volume in Mr. Horace Howard Furness's Variorum Edition of Shakspere; 'The Idealist,' by Henry T. King; and 'Typewriting and Business Correspondence,' by O. R. Palmer.

A Life of Mr. Spurgeon, by the Rev. George C. Lorimer, is in preparation. It will be published in Boston by James H. Earle.

Charles L. Webster & Co. announce 'The American Claimant,' a new novel by Mark Twain; 'Selected Poems by Walt Whitman,' edited by Arthur Stedman; and 'Life is Worth Living,' by Count Tolstoi.

P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia, are about to bring out a monograph on 'Physical Education,' by Frederick Treves.

A work on the 'Hygienic Treatment of Consumption,' by Dr. M. L. Holbrook, will bear the imprint of the firm of which he is the senior partner.

The most elaborate of Browning publications yet recorded is 'The Browning Cyclopædia. A Guide to the Study of the Works of Robert Browning, with Copious Explanatory Notes and References on all Difficult Passages,' by Edward Berdoe (Macmillan). The author had previously signalized his devotion to the poet by a volume of exposition and comment, and prepared us to find very thorough work in this more comprehensive labor, for which he thinks only his scientific training would have sufficed. He aims to give "an exposition of the leading ideas of every poem, its keynote, the sources—historical, legendary, or fanciful—to which the poem was due, and a glossary of every difficult word or allusion which might obscure the sense to such readers as had short memories or scanty reading." This was truly an herculean task, and Dr. Berdoe fitted himself for it by attending "nearly every meeting of the Browning Society," reading all papers and books on Browning, and obtaining aid from obliging students of the subject. The result is nearly 600 pages of closely printed matter, practically the annotator's work, though he has incorporated, by permission, the special notes of Prof. Sonnenschein on "Sordello," and acknowledges similar obligation to a few other co-laborers. Here is hived the honey that the Browning societies seek for; and now that every one who will can find at once both the ideas of the poet and all his allusions explained, is there anything more to be desired? A scant dozen "unsolved difficulties," duly advertised, alone are left, if we may trust the author. The use of this cyclopædia to the twentieth century is undeniable; and yet the very bigness of it shows the size of the obstacle that Browning's fame must then overcome.

To most English readers 'Italian Explorers in Africa' (F. H. Revell Co.), by Sofia Bompiani, will open a new chapter in recent African travel, in which are to be found numerous examples of devotion to science and the welfare of mankind, as well as romantic adventures. The Italians have not been so successful in their discoveries or in the extent of their journeys as the English, but this is owing rather to the extraordinary difficulty of the task tacitly assigned them by Europe than to any lack of courage or enterprise. Their work has been to explore and open up to commerce Abyssinia and the country of the Galla and Somali, peoples who resist the progress of the traveller with far greater determination and success than the weaker negroid races. The most widely known explorers, however, are not those who have been engaged in this region, but Romolo Gessi and Count Pietro di Brazza. The former, the ablest of Gordon's lieutenants, besides being the first European to circumnavigate Lake Albert, showed great ability as governor of one of the provinces of the Sudan, whose infesting horde of slave-traders he utterly destroyed in a series of brilliant campaigns. Di Brazza, beginning his explorations on the west coast as a French naval officer in 1874, has acquired for his adopted country a large territory to the north of the lower Congo. It is rather surprising to find that but two or three Italians have travelled in Tripoli and the Libyan Desert, a region whose proximity to Italy would seem to have especially induced exploration by them. Madame Bompiani writes easily and entertainingly, but naturally treats her subject in a very superficial manner, being obliged to compress the accounts of more than twenty travellers into a compass of two hundred pages. A series of interesting portraits accompany the sketches, but the book contains neither map nor index.

'Missionaries in China,' by Alexander Michie (London: E. Stanford), is a valuable and suggestive discussion of one of the most perplexing problems confronting the Christian world. The writer, who has lived for many years in various parts of the country, endeavors to explain the causes of the universal detestation of missionaries by a people who are completely tolerant of two great foreign religions, Mohammedanism and Buddhism. These causes he divides into the political and the religious, and closes with an attempt to suggest a *modus vivendi*. Chief among the former are the fact that the recognition of the missionaries was forced upon China, for which reason they are inseparably associated with the humiliation of the empire; an explicable race hatred; and the superstitious belief among all classes that the missionaries bewitch the people, their houses and grounds, and are kidnappers of children. The religious causes are the moral condition of the Chinese, which differs radically from that of any other non-Christian race, and the aggressive manner with which Christianity has been presented. Mr. Michie accuses the missionaries (with, of course, many noble exceptions) of being either ignorant or indifferent to what is good in Chinese ethics. The unrestricted circulation of the Bible he believes also to be a real hindrance, since in its entirety it "is not a proper book to be indiscriminately read by people quite unprepared for its teachings and out of sympathy with its spirit." He adds that "the foulest attacks made against Christianity by the Chinese *literati* are loaded to the muzzle with missiles from the Bible." In his opinion, there is apparently little hope of any change of feeling for a generation at least. The task would be less difficult, however, if the missionaries would give up their foreign protection and permit the official supervision of their missionary establishments. If this were done, the Government would, undoubtedly,

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vigorously suppress all such inflammatory placards and calumnious brochures as preceded and fomented the recent riots.

'Log of a Japanese Journey, from the Province of Tosa to the Capital,' is the title in English of a charming unpaged booklet by Flora Best Harris. Stitched, bound, and illustrated in Japanese style, its outward dress comports with its contents. The Tosa Niki, or diary of Tsurayaki, one of the imperial governors sent out from Kioto by the Mikado to take charge of the province of Tosa, was written in the tenth century, and is a classic. It is simply a pretty word-picture of coast, land and sea. Daintily and carefully the translator has rendered into English this white "plum flower" of Oriental literature, and well deserves thanks for her task. Both prose and poetry are happily presented, and the appropriate illustrations are by a native artist, Toshio Aoki. The charming little nothing, which has held its place in Japanese literature by virtue of its style alone, is a fresh illustration and lesson to young writers of the worth of form. Flood & Vincent, Meadville, Pa., are the publishers.

'Shepp's Photographs of the World' (New York: Frank Hegger) is a handsome volume designed to illustrate a tour of the globe, going eastward from Ireland and ending at the Capitol at Washington. The series is well selected, with a fair degree of freshness, is printed pretty evenly in heliotype from plates of uniform size, and has a few lines of guide-book explanation at the foot of each view. This text must not be scrutinized too closely in detail, either for what it says or what it omits to say—*e. g.*, the overthrow of the Vendôme Column is not mentioned, and the so-called Aztec calendar-stone, here rightly shown in the *patio* of the National Museum in the City of Mexico, is said to stand "at the foot of the left tower of the Cathedral." The views, too, are occasionally not the most recent in cases where this is of some consequence, as in that of Athens, and one cannot praise the choice or execution of the few representations of painting and statuary. But, all deductions made, this is an attractive book for the centre-table, and contains some souvenir for almost every tourist.

Mr. Huish's 'Year's Art' (London: J. S. Virtue & Co.) makes its regular and welcome appearance for 1892. Besides its varied information concerning British and, indeed, Anglo-Saxon art bodies and exhibitions, and its pictorial memoranda of the latter, it continues its invaluable series of portraits of artists with those of the members of the Royal Institute of Painters in Water Colors. Mr. E. A. Abbey is one of the number, and amid the new matter is to be remarked the instructions to artists respecting our new Copyright Law, together with information in regard to the art exhibition at the coming World's Fair. Such captions as the Art Sales of 1891, Engravings Published in 1891, List of Fine Art Dealers, and Directory of Artists, speak for themselves.

'Hazell's Annual for 1892' is a seventh appearance of this useful book of reference, which has a character quite its own, taking its color from the year as the chameleon from the surface to which it adheres. The complexion of 1891 was social even more than political, and hence one finds the labor agitator and reformer prominent among the biographies of new men—for example, John Burns, who, it appears, was born in 1858. The story of the dock strikers is told under the head of Labor, which fills nearly ten closely printed pages. Trade and Trade Unions take up but little less space. Continuity between one edition and the next of this Annual is maintained by back references, and the lack of a table of contents (or of classes) as a guide even to the alphabetic arrangement is partly supplied by cross references. The volume must be examined and studied to be appreciated.

The appearance of so many manuals of heraldry as we have noticed in the past three years proves the existence of many students of the art. To them we can recommend Mr. F. Edward Hulme's 'History, Principles, and Practice of Heraldry' (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan), as containing one pleasant variation from its recent predecessors. Mr. Hulme has incorporated herein many quaint extracts from the early writers, and has thus enlivened what is usually a very dry topic. It is hardly necessary to say that there are no possible novelties in the matter itself, unless some recognized government shall sanction a new color or a new class of devices. Every good manual must repeat the old rules and definitions, and each publisher must seek for customers only by offering new and pertinent illustrations.

Mr. George Ashton Black contributes to the Political Science Series of Columbia College an essay entitled "The History of Municipal Ownership of Land on Manhattan Island, to the Beginning of Sales by the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund in 1844." The subject is of rather limited interest, but this essay will no doubt be of assistance to students of our local antiquities. It might have been made of very great value to conveyancers, but, owing to the omission of particulars which they require, it seems likely to be of little service to them. Incidentally, some of the financial history of the city is given, and copies of certain rare maps are furnished in the appendix.

A new Boston venture in the shape of a periodical is set down for appearance on March 5, and on every succeeding Saturday thereafter: *Two Tales* is the self-revealing name of it, and No. 1 promises a short story, "Juliza," by Mary E. Wilkins, and "Halifax Borough," by A. C. Gordon. It will be seen that for ten cents the Sunday reading is assured, and it will probably be of good quality, to judge from the list of well-known writers interested in the project. Considering the amount of fiction which the better class of monthly magazines cannot accommodate, *Two Tales* does not seem likely to perish of inanition.

The library of Cornell University contemplates a catalogue of the May Anti-Slavery Collection, now embracing nearly 4,000 titles of books and pamphlets. In the December *Bulletin* of the library a list is given of documents, chiefly society reports, which it is desired to procure by gift or purchase before beginning the catalogue.

We have received from Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, the third instalment of Dr. H. Kiepert's special map of Asia Minor on the large scale of 1:250,000, which is now completed. A sheet showing the political administrative divisions of the part of the country comprised in the map accompanies the last of the plates. The authority and utility of this great labor need no words from us.

—The latest issue of Peacock's novels is 'Nightmare Abbey' (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan). It is provided with an excellent portrait of Peacock at the age of seventy-two. This is the novel which is supposed to have a special interest as containing a sketch of Shelley in the character of "Scythrop," and it appears that Shelley himself supposed that this character was studied from him; but, as the editor remarks, it is only so far as "Scythrop" embodies the traits of the sanguine enthusiast, and exhibits sensitiveness to real or imaginary unkindness, that the character seems indebted to Peacock's personal observations of the poet. Other eminent men have a place in the volume, notably Coleridge, who had already appeared in 'Melincourt,' but is here more justly delineated—a change which the editor attributes to Shelley's influence. In the literary movement of the time the novel is placed by the editor as subsequent to the misanthropy of Byron, itself following on the crude romance of Monk Lewis. "'The ghosts,' says Mr. Flosky, in this novel, 'have been laid, and the devil has been cast into outer darkness, and now the delight of our spirit is to dwell on all the vices and blackest passions of our nature, tricked out in a masquerade dress of heroism and disappointed benevolence.' At this juncture Peacock came forward to defend 'the cheerful and solid wisdom of antiquity' against Childe Haroldism as impersonated in Mr. Cypress and the Coleridgean transcendentalism of Mr. Flosky and the political methods of 'Spartacus Weishaupt, the immortal founder of the sect of the Illuminati'; to say nothing of the blue-devils chargeable partly upon climate and domestic worries, partly upon 'tea, late dinners, and the French Revolution.'" We make room for the quotation because it brings out the fantastic traits of the Peacockian novel, and also illustrates its interest as a highly intellectual criticism of the time.

—Believing that the time has come when "the people want to know intimately and without glamour or false coloring the father of his country as he actually lived and labored," Dr. J. M. Toner has begun his long-promised issue of a "complete collection of all the writings of George Washington, from his youth to the close of his eventful life" with an exactness so literal as to approach the methods of the Chinese. Such a task might well dismay a young man; but Dr. Toner has the enthusiasm and energy to carry on the work, and if we may judge by the 'Journal of 1747-'8' (Albany: J. Munsell's Sons), the most critical can find little fault. The admirer of Washington will approve of the method; the historical writer and biographer will use this text as final; and the book-collector will welcome the large print, wide margins, and handy form. There can be no doubt to what school of writers the genial editor belongs—the critically sympathetic. There is a preface, an introduction, the Journal, with many notes, Washington's crude memoranda, poetry, early letters, and finally the rough memoranda of surveys—in fact, all that is to be found in a small pigskin note-book in the Washington Collection. There are tracings of surveys, and a reproduction of Sparks's engraved plan of Mount Vernon. Thoroughness is the leading idea, and textual accuracy the end. The mention of a knife leads to a note nearly two pages in length on the use of knife and fork at table. Another note of a page tells much about the wild turkey. The editor believes Washington to have had humor, and never to have been indiscreet in the use of wine; and throws doubt upon the alleged affairs of the heart that rumor has attributed to the youthful surveyor. Our space forbids further notice of the varied contents of this entertaining volume, but it may be recommended to all collectors of Washingtoniana. It might be suggested that, instead of tracings (a clumsy contrivance), a photographic reproduction be employed. The lithograph of Mount Vernon is on too small a scale to be legible; the

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engraving in Arthur Young's volume would have been better. Then, too, we wish the editor had given a page of the Journal in facsimile. As one of the earliest of the Washington MSS., such a page would prevent such stupid impositions as the so-called "Washington's Prayers."

—A recent address to the Mississippi Bar Association by its President, Mr. R. H. Thompson, upon the changes in the organic law of that State made by the new Constitution of 1890, concerning which there was so much said during the last session of Congress, is printed in the current number of the *American Law Review*. We learn from it that Mississippi was the first State to give married women property rights. The act of the Mississippi Legislature passed as long ago as the year 1839 has been followed by nearly every State in the Union and also by England. As Mississippi was the first to remove woman's property disabilities by statute, so she is the first to guard her entire emancipation in this particular by constitutional provision. Section 94 of the new Constitution deprives the Legislature of all power to create by law any distinction between the rights of men and of women to acquire, own, enjoy and dispose of all kinds of property, or their right to contract in reference to it. Mr. Thompson adds the surprising information that the sources of Mississippi's first married woman's law were the tribal customs of the Chickasaw Indians then residing in the State, and that its author was a member of the Legislature who was about to marry a rich widow and who was himself harassed by creditors.

—At the session of the Académie des Inscriptions of January 15, M. Salomon Reinach read an interesting memoir on plastic art in Gaul in connection with Druidism. He said that after the efflorescence of art in Gaul, at the reindeer epoch, we find a long period, from the era of the megalithic monuments to the time of the Roman conquest, in which sculpture is almost wholly lacking. The passages in Cæsar and Lucan which have been cited to prove the existence of carved images of the gods have been misinterpreted. They refer only to rough stone pillars, or squared tree-trunks—works quite unworthy of the advanced industry of the epoch. One is obliged, therefore, to attribute the absence of statues in Gaul to a religious interdiction. As among the Romans and the Persians, this prohibition was the work of a religious aristocracy. In Gaul this aristocracy was the College of the Druids, to the influence of which M. Reinach attributes the dolmens and menhirs. These last are not Celtic, for Druidism was anterior to the Celts, who accepted in part the Druidic religion just as the Greeks did the Pelasgic. The aversion of Druidism to representations of the gods is not attested by any formal text, but Plutarch says that it was Numa, the pupil of Pythagoras, who forbade images to the Romans, and other writers relate that Pythagoras was a pupil of the Druids. These legends have no great authority in themselves, but they bear witness to an affinity of doctrines. Druidism, like Mosaism, was hostile to anthropomorphism, and this explains the absence of images in Gaul down to the time of the Roman domination.

—The Academy of Vienna has just received an important communication from Prof. Kraal upon the Etruscan text discovered at the Museum of Agram. This text was written upon a band of papyrus that covered the mummy of a woman, brought from Egypt in 1849. It was first examined by the learned Egyptologist H. Brugsch, who could make nothing out of it, and declared it untranslatable. Then Prof. Kraal set himself at work, and his studies soon convinced him that what he had in hand was an Etruscan text very much longer than any hitherto known. It contains 1,200 words, divided into 200 lines. The ink and the papyrus are incontestably of Egyptian make. The authenticity of the text is affirmed by Drs. Bücheler, Deecke, and Pauli, and these scholars have no doubt that if this precious relic shall be deciphered, we shall have at last a key to the mysterious Etruscan tongue. Herr Kraal has attempted a first reading of the fragment together with some restorations, and Herr Deecke adds explanatory notes. Another addition to Etruscan linguistics was made in a paper sent in to the Académie des Inscriptions at its session of January 31 by M. Casati of the Court of Paris. This gave an account of an Etruscan burial-place recently discovered at Castiglione del Lago, on the borders of Lake Thrasymene. It consists of a certain number of tombs hollowed out in the tufa, and separated by passages about a metre in width. These tombs have already been dug into and in part despoiled, but, notwithstanding this, some fifty funeral urns bearing inscriptions have been brought to light. M. Casati gave a translation of the more interesting ones, in which appear some Etruscan family names already known. He called special attention to a termination *alisa*, which appears in an inscription. The precise sense of the termination *al* is already known from a bilingual inscription: it designates maternal descent in the first degree. M. Casati believes that *alisa* designates the same descent in the second degree. He added some interesting information as to the diggings that have been made this year at Todi, the Tutere of the Etruscans, where many noteworthy objects of art and archæology have been found—mirrors bearing figures of the male genii known as *lasas*, arms, armor, bone jewelry, etc.

THE MAN OF GENIUS.

The Man of Genius. By Cesare Lombroso, Professor of Legal Medicine in the University of Turin. [The Contemporary Science Series.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

Prof. Lombroso comes to us with a proposition not absolutely new, but which he makes claim now to prove for the first time. It is that genius is a mental disease, allied to epileptiform mania and in a lesser degree to the dementia of cranks, or mattoids, as he calls them; so that, far from being a mental perfection, it is a degenerate and diseased condition. The inevitable corollary must be, though Prof. Lombroso does not draw it, that the whole of civilization is due to insanity. If so, it is a disease like pearls, fat livers, and ambergris, which we had better try to propagate, in others. But our Napoleons, our Pythagorases, our Newtons, and our Dantes must no longer run at large, but be confined in Genius Asylums as fast as they betray themselves.

To prove his proposition, Prof. Lombroso proceeds inductively. In order, therefore, to judge of his work, we will examine the first induction he offers with some care. This first generalization is that geniuses are, on the average, of smaller stature than ordinary men. Here is his reasoning:

"Famous for short stature as well as for genius were: Horace (*lepidissimum homunculum dicebat Augustus* [Lombroso fails to note that this implies that Augustus was himself large]), Philopœmen, Narses, Alexander (*Magnus Alexander corpore parvus erat*), Aristotle, Plato, Epicurus, Chrysippus, Laertes, Archimedes, Diogenes, Attila, Epictetus (who was accustomed to say, 'Who am I? A little man'). Among moderns one may name Erasmus, Socinus, Linnæus, Lipsius, Gibbon, Spinoza, Haüy, Montaigne, Mézeray, Lalande, Gray, John Hunter (5 ft., 2 in.), Mozart, Beethoven, Goldsmith, Hogarth, Thomas Moore, Thomas Campbell, Wilberforce, Heine, Meissonier, Charles Lamb, Beccaria, Maria Edgeworth, Balzac, De Quincy, William Blake (who was scarcely five feet in height), Browning, Ibsen, George Eliot, Thiers, Mrs. Browning, Louis Blanc, Mendelssohn, Swinburne, Van Does (called the Drum, because he was not any taller than a drum), Peter van Laer (called the Puppet), Lulli, Pomponazzi, Baldini, were very short; so, also, were Nicholas Piccinino, the philosopher Dati, and Baldo, who replied to the sarcasm of Bartholo, 'Minuit præsentia fama,' with the words 'Augebit cetera virtus'; and again Marsilio Ficino, of whom it was said, 'Vix ad lumbos viri stabat.' Albertus Magnus was of such small size that the Pope, having allowed him to kiss his foot, commanded him to stand up, under the impression that he was still kneeling. When the coffin of St. Francis Xavier was opened at Goa in 1890, the body was found to be only four and a half feet in length.

"Among great men of tall stature I know only Volta, Goethe, Petrarch, Schiller, D'Azeglio, Helmholtz, Foscolo, Charlemagne, Bismarck, Moltke, Monti, Mirabeau, Dumas père, Schopenhauer, Lamartine, Voltaire, Peter the Great, Washington, Dr. Johnson, Stein, Arago, Flaubert, Carlyle, Turgeneff, Tennyson, Whitman."

Now we remark, at once, that the thirty names in the latter list are nearly all great names; while to collect the sixty in the former list, the author has been compelled to descend to Narses, Chrysippus, Laertes, Mézeray, Lalande, Thomas Campbell, De Quincey, William Blake, Does, Laer, Pomponazzi, Baldini, Piccinino, Dati, and Baldo! Nor are the statements always accurate. As for Epictetus, his expression of submission to God has nothing to do with his stature, concerning which there seems to be no information. Ancient references to his person merely allude to the story of his master breaking his leg. It is quite unlikely that Plato was diminutive, because his beauty was such that he was believed to be the son of Apollo. The statements about Epicurus and Diogenes are very doubtful; and that about Archimedes far from certain. Attila was short, like all Huns, but not shorter than the average. Balzac, instead of being small, was colossal; Spinoza and Hunter were about of medium height, notwithstanding the measurement given of the latter; George Eliot and Linnæus were somewhat above the average; and Erasmus, though not tall, was not noticeably short. Let us be glad that Signor Lombroso's credit for fairness is saved by one mistake on the other side, Schopenhauer being under the middle height.

Making these corrections and disregarding the insignificant names, the two lists are not far from equal. Taking, however, a list of great men* that was drawn up some years ago, without the slightest thought of their stature, and which therefore may be supposed to afford a fair sample, we have looked up the heights of as many of them as we readily could, with the following result:

Short Men.—Alexander, Archimedes (?), Aristotle, Francis Bacon, Beethoven (5 ft., 6 in.), A. Comte, Descartes, Epicurus (??), Erasmus, Faraday, Frederick the Great, Garrick, Jacob Grimm, Harvey, Warren Hastings, Horace, Howard, Kant, Thomas à Kempis, Kepler, Locke, Louis XIV., Mendelssohn, Montesquieu, Mozart, Napoleon, Schopenhauer, Wagner, St. Francis Xavier—29.

Middle-sized Men.—Attila, Burns (5 ft., 10

* That is to say, of those who make a certain impression upon us in advance of any critical examination.

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in.), Calvin, Camoens, Cromwell (5 ft., 10 in.), Dante, Jeanne Darc, George Eliot, John Hunter, Lagrange, Linnæus, Machiavelli, Mahomet, Clerk Maxwell, James Mill, Milton, Rachel, Adam Smith, Spinoza—15.

Tall Men.—Alcibiades, Aquinas, Balzac, Bismarck, Boyle, Cæsar, Carlyle, Champollion, Charlemagne, Clive, Columbus, Constantine, Darwin, Dürer, Dumas père, Queen Elizabeth, Emerson, Fielding (over 6 ft.), Gilbert, Goethe, Hawthorne, Helmholtz, Alexander von Humboldt, Lavoisier, Leonardo da Vinci, Lessing, Abraham Lincoln, J. S. Mill, Mirabeau, Molière, Moltke, Peter the Great, Petrarch, Rumford, Schiller, Shelley (5 ft. 11 in.), Mrs. Siddons, Tennyson, Titian, Voltaire, Washington, Daniel Webster, Wellington, William the Silent—44.

This is an honest induction, from a list of instances drawn up without reference to the character for which the sample was to be examined, and seems to show that great men are a little above the average height.

It may perhaps be suspected that the above quotation does not do justice to the general run of Prof. Lombroso's reasonings; but, in point of fact, the induction examined is one of the best in the book, being quite exceptional as showing some effort, however feeble, to be fair. His ordinary method is to take up each symptom of insanity, and to search high and low for instances which may look as if some men of genius have had that symptom. Such reasoning would be rejected without hesitation were there not such a deluge of cases as must give us pause. In considering their value as premises, the first question to be asked is how many men there are in universal biography whom Prof. Lombroso would call geniuses. That his standard is pretty low, his first list in the above extract suffices to show. He never puts himself to the trouble of making the reader or himself understand what he means by "genius." He delights in repeating that by *genius* he does not mean *talent*, and finds fault with Galton for confusing these qualities. But the truth is, Galton is far too sound a reasoner to potter over the meaning of two popular words, mere accidents of language. Such categories can be of no use in reasoning until they have passed through the fire of a scientific revision such as Prof. Lombroso seems little to dream of. He covers his confusion of thought by the commonplace that "genius is original, talent not." Of course, maniacs are original enough, if the quality of the product is nothing. But to look at his instances, he does not seem to stickle for originality very much. Among his geniuses we find Mrs. Southey, whose nearest approach to brilliancy was going crazy; Nathaniel Lee, absurdest of dramatists; Bishop Dupanloup; the poet Thomson; Buhl, whoever he may be; Sir Everard Home; Ann Lee, the Shakeress; Lord Palmerston; Florence Nightingale; George Washington, a truly great man, but hardly, one would suppose, within Lombroso's category of genius; Prof. Asaph Hall, a remarkably sane mind; Talleyrand; Mrs. Stowe; William Pitt; Richard Steele. Addison and Pope are mentioned as men of genius, and in one place even as "normal" men of genius; yet when their traits do not seem to fit the theory, they are set down as men of talent, merely. In short, the author ranks almost anybody as a genius whom it happens to be for the moment convenient to reckon as such.

There is a well-known book called Phillips's 'Index of Biographical Reference,' said to contain over 100,000 names. We have set down in a list the first name on every twenty-fifth page; and we find among these names, thirty-nine in number, no less than seven that impress us as fully as distinguished as some of Lombroso's instances of genius. Namely, these seven are: Biela, for whom a comet is named; Sir James R. G. Graham, a well-known statesman; Naumann Köprili Pasha, the last of his celebrated family; Gen. Longstreet; Alexis Piron, the French satirist; Robert Semple, the early Scottish poet; and Evelina Stading, the contemporary Swedish painter. In that proportion there should be no less than 100,000 × 7 + 39, or 18,000 "persons of genius," in Lombroso's sense of the term, named in Phillips's Index. But, notwithstanding the diligent researches of the learned Italian, it may well be supposed that five-sixths of these (or whatever Italian names might replace some of them) could have symptoms of insanity without his being likely to know of it; so that we will suppose he is drawing his cases from only 3,000 geniuses.

The question next arises how much insanity he finds. There are, perhaps, a thousand cases of symptoms of insanity in the book; but they are, for the most part, of the slightest nature—to show how slight, we here give the first case on every tenth page for the first hundred pages:

(1.) Volta had the largest brain known (p. 10). The next largest was that of an idiot.

(2.) Dante wrote:

> "Son un che, quando
> Amor mi spira, noto, ed a quel modo
> Che detta dentro vo significando."
> —(p. 20.)

"I am one that, when love inspires, note, and in what manner he dictates within, proceed to express." This is supposed to indicate something like epilepsy.

(3.) Boileau could not hear any one praised, not even his shoemaker, without annoyance (p. 30).

(4.) Ann Lee saw Christ coming to her (p. 40). This is supposed to be a hallucination of *genius*.

(5.) Tolstoi confesses that philosophical skepticism at one time brought him to a condition approaching insanity (p. 50).

(6.) Petrarch's love-misery was a mere pretext for writing poetry (p. 60). This is supposed to be an example of that insensibility which is said to be a common trait of genius and insanity.

(7.) There was insanity in Baudelaire's family (p. 70).

(8.) Swift had a softening of the brain (p. 80). This came on ten years after he wrote 'Gulliver'; and the subsequent disease is supposed to be an evidence of derangement at the time the great work was writing.

(9.) The story-teller Hoffmann was a drunkard (p. 90).

Now, we may fairly assume that for each case of real insanity there would be at least ten cases of symptoms like the average of the above; for these would not occur all ten in one person. If so, Lombroso's thousand instances imply only about a hundred cases of insanity; and 100 cases of insanity *at some time in the lives* of 3,000 persons of intensely active brains, and for the most part in uncomfortable circumstances, is not extraordinary. Certainly, it by no means compels us to suppose that the whole body of them were more or less crazy their whole lives long. On the whole, therefore, the main argument of the book proves nothing and renders nothing probable. At most, it creates a problematic state of mind, and makes us wish to see the subject treated with a stricter attention to the logical conditions of valid induction.

But Prof. Lombroso presents another and much stronger argument. Namely, he shows that an unbroken series of cases exists, ranging from those where there is undoubted genius through imperceptible gradations to cases of undoubted mania, in which last the patient performs intellectual feats of which he would be utterly incapable in his normal state. Thus, he may write poetry, speak a foreign language, or play a game of chess, being unable to do the same thing in his ordinary health. A patient said to his physician, who thought him convalescent, "I am not quite cured; I am still too clever for that. In my natural condition I am stupid; wait, and I shall become so again" (p. 168). In these cases there were *other* symptoms of mania. But as for this disease of genius, if it consists *solely* in the brain functioning more perfectly than when it is well, why, what a very peculiar disease this mental disease must be! There would certainly be no difficulty in finding an unbroken series of cases passing by imperceptible gradations from cases of the working of undoubted genius to cases of the working of plain common sense. Accordingly, if the first series proves that genius is insanity, the first and second together prove that good sense is insanity.

But, after all, there is a puzzle about the matter not easily resolved; and those who are themselves visited with genius have always been ready to admit there is something like a malady about it. No doubt, our ordinary sense of behaving rationally is in the main, though not entirely, an illusion. The right hand, for instance, is connected with a certain part of the brain, and that is joined by commissures to other parts connected again with the eye, ear, tongue, etc.; and it is the structure of the commissures, medial and lateral, between different parts of the brain which determines how we shall act under given stimuli. It is true that, no matter how, we can control our actions to a certain extent; at a short notice, only slightly, but if time for preparation be allowed, a great deal. We can force ourselves to take habits, certain commissures becoming partially atrophied, while others are brought into activity under exercise. But in the main we behave as it is our nature to, like wild animals; and, as it happens that our nature is adapted to our circumstances, we take occasion to compliment ourselves upon our rationality. If the brain becomes diseased, the connection between certain parts get broken, and we begin to act in new ways. As we acted right in the main before, to act differently is to act ill. Yet it may happen, in special cases, that the breaking down of certain commissures may cause certain special actions to be done better than before; because the wave of nerve action is restricted to certain channels and its dissipation prevented. Indeed, it is probable that an excess of medial commissures, or those between the two halves of the brain, causes stupidity, deliberation becoming impossible when the thinking vessel leaks so fast. If so, we can see how disease of the brain may cause an improvement in the general intelligence.

Now, the brain of a genius, say of a great mathematician, a Gauss or a Dirichlet (of which two brains Prof. Lombroso gives drawings), is seen at a glance to be quite unlike that of a common man. It may be larger; it is certain to be far more complicated and implicated. These foldings imply that the parts are more disconnected. Its connections of parts being different, such a brain must act differently from common brains; and consequently it will in general be less adapted to the ordi-

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nary purposes of life. It is not disease, but greater development; yet the unfortunate man whose shoulders have to carry it, becomes the victim of his own higher organization. Of course, there will be special things for which such a highly complicated brain will be specially adapted; and in being exercised continually on those things, as it naturally will be, it will grow more adapted to them. Such actions will not be insane; they will be like the operations of common sense, only more perfect. In doing such work, such a brain will take steps for the advancement of mankind of which ordinary heads would be quite incapable. The world will reap the benefit of it, and the unfortunate individual will have to pay for it. But, circumstances being generally unfavorable, the energies of such a brain are largely spent in vainly trying to make it do things for which it is entirely unadapted, though other brains do them with ease. The result is, that first derangement, then disease ensues, and we get the phenomenon of aberrations of genius.

MORE NOVELS.

Peter Ibbetson. By George Du Maurier. Harper & Bros.

In the "Stranger People's" Country. By Charles Egbert Craddock. Harper & Bros.

The Lady of Fort St. John. By M. H. Catherwood. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

An Imperative Duty. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Bros.

The Little Minister. By J. M. Barrie. John W. Lovell Co.

A Modern Aladdin. By Howard Pyle. Harper & Bros.

The Spanish Galleon. By C. S. Seeley. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Prisons of Air. By Moncure D. Conway. United States Book Co.

OCCASIONALLY an author who has not developed from small beginnings beneath the public eye, by making his literary début in a long novel justifies the rashness of his choice. This rare occurrence is perhaps the foundation for the commonly accepted belief that the art of writing is the only art for which no special training is needed. Mr. Du Maurier's remarkable book, 'Peter Ibbetson,' is a very valuable illustration in support of the argument that writing is natural to man, even as breathing—much more valuable, for instance, than the literary achievements of great soldiers, from Julius Cæsar down to General Grant; men who had not first to invent their story and then tell it with more or less reference to the conditions and conventions of art, but only to narrate lucidly and exactly events in which they took a prominent part.

Mr. Du Maurier, in this his first novel, scores two successes, one through the extraordinary interest and charm with which he invests the lives of a number of people remarkable for nothing except gentle manners and good looks, and the other through the imaginative force by which he makes incredible things appear possible, if not always probable. We have nothing of its kind in fiction more refined and natural than the description of the tranquil domestic life of the Pasquiers and Seraskiers at Passy; and if there is some disappointment of expectation in the failure of the engaging Gogo Pasquier, become by adoption Peter Ibbetson, to develop brilliantly, the compensation of that just vengeance which in a moment transforms the kindly giant into a hero and a criminal, is great. The reasons why the nephew could not help killing the uncle are so clear and sufficient that the sudden tragedy is divested of violence, even of any appearance of deliberate dramatic surprise. If it were possible for the law in meting out punishment to take cognizance of the character of the offender as compared with that of the victim, Peter Ibbetson would have been awarded a public ovation, not condemned to twenty-five years of stone walls and prison fare. The situation to which this tragedy leads is as novel as it is audacious.

We are being so thoroughly educated away from incredulity by dabblers in extra-natural and superhuman mysteries, that no theory or statement boldly advanced is so strange as not to win qualified acceptance, or at least to escape unqualified repudiation; but he who represents himself as selected for experiences still far beyond the ordinary, must not insist too much, nor invite criticism by too voluminous detail and an infinite extension of his situation. Mr. Du Maurier seems to us to have fallen into the error of over-elaboration, an error which an accustomed novelist would almost surely have feared and avoided. We accept the original conception, startling though it is. That the dream companionship endured through twenty-five years is no more marvellous than that it should ever begin. Our deep sympathy with the misfortunes of Gogo and Mimsey makes us willing to believe that they were given a shadow of happiness more complete than the substance they had missed, but sympathy doesn't stand the strain of their retrogressive incarnations and prehistoric gambols with the mammoth. Why did they stop short of a first cause and deprive us of the joy of announcing 'Peter Ibbetson' as the greatest book ever written in any age or tongue? But it is near enough to greatness to tempt one to extravagant epithet. There are no suggestions of mediocrity. The pathos is true, the irony delicate, the satire severe when its subject is unworthy, the comedy sparkling, and the tragedy, as we have said, inevitable. One or two more such books, and the fame of the artist would be dim beside that of the novelist, as in this one the artist is properly secondary. It has been said that the story is mere text for the illustrations. The expectation of such a performance is the only foundation for the accusation. Most of the drawings are cleverly illustrative, but some in which the figures are crowded have been so much reduced that they are neither explanatory nor decorative.

Zealots in the pursuit of science are notoriously cold-blooded, but seldom promoters of disorder and crime. Mr. Shattuck, the scientific gentleman in 'The Stranger People's Country' is preëminently a man of peace, yet before the tale of his persistence in desecrating the graves of the "Leetle People" is told, the "straight-shootin'" Guthree and the desperado Cheever, with his gang, appear by comparison with him blood-guiltless. It is a very interesting tale, one of the best that Miss Murfree has told us, though if fiction really were, what many people pretend that it is, good only in proportion to its beneficial effect on a common moral sense, all Miss Murfree's stories are bad, and this one of the worst. It must be confessed that the chief interest in almost all stories of American frontier life of our mountains and prairies is a demoralizing one; that we care for the people most, not on account of their primitive and spasmodic virtues, but for their absolute contempt of law and order, their uncontaminated ruffianism. Our frail sympathies gush most warmly towards the permanently intoxicated Col. Starbottle, or that professional exponent of the blandishments of poker, Mr. Jack Hamlin—in this instance, towards the straight-shootin' Fee Guthree. When the clatter of hoofs down the defile announces that the sheriff is after some one, our heart stands still with anxiety—not that the Sheriff may catch his man. When the ruffian stands over six feet in his long boots, rides straight and stiff in his stirrups, has fair hair and a sentimental cast of mind, Sir Galahad in competition is nowhere. Such a charmer is Fee Guthree; his romantic splendor much enhanced, his power for demoralization infinitely extended, by contrast with the correct, dull, scientific grave-robber, Mr. Shattuck.

But one thing Miss Murfree might have done to depreciate Guthree and excite a mild esteem for Shattuck—that is, to have made the latter the victim in the culminating tragedy. By choosing another course, she fails as a moralist, which is not her office, and also as a story-teller, which vocation is her birthright. A novelist may legitimately make use of all possible situations and developments of character, but we demand for our satisfaction (the reason why is deeply philosophical) that he shall choose the most probable; or, probabilities being equal, that which does not spring upon warm emotions an ice-cold shower. If some one had to be shot, it might as well have been Shattuck as Guthree. Such a catastrophe would have been humanly and artistically fitting. All along we are keenly in sympathy with the local superstition and veneration for the unknown dead, and that Shattuck should come to his death when in the act of rifling the grave would be as the lightning-stroke of vengeance from the offended gods of the long-buried Little People. The spectacle of such respectability stalking unchecked in the Tennessee mountains is exceedingly irritating, and we dismiss as arbitrary sentimentality the picture of the freakish Letitia, wearing out her bright youth with waiting for the fulfilment of a promise no sooner spoken than forgotten by the man who made it. How much closer to probability and gratifying to expectation would be a picture of Letitia (her fancy for Shattuck converted into resentment for his desertion) keeping her eye on the sacred graves and her hand on the family shotgun, for prompt reply to any one who should come "vagrantin' round inquirin' for them as be dead and done with the livin' long ago." Letitia of the last page contradicts all that goes before, and we can account for her only by supposing that Miss Murfree gave way to a rare fit of sentimentality which obscured her judgment. To the same blindness may perhaps be ascribed those final paragraphs in one of which reference is made to the heavy doom that fell upon all who were implicated in the attempted disturbance of the Little People, while, in another, we take farewell of the chief offender, Shattuck, middle-aged and prosperous, indulging in reminiscences of the Tennessee mountains, with no suspicion that his behavior there had been open to censure.

Discontent with an author whose fictitious tragedy is weak is mild compared with that excited by the author who spoils an actual tragedy by surrounding it with fictitious circumstance. About five years ago there appeared an anonymous novel, entitled 'Constance of Acadia.' This book, though defective in arrangement and style, showed study and comprehension both of the details of the feud between Charles La Tour and D'Aulnay de Charnizay and of contemporary New England history. The remarkable character and heroic

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life of Constance La Tour were depicted with admirable fidelity and understanding. A second more or less fictitious version of this romantic but, in its results, insignificant historical episode, would seem superfluous, unless the person attempting it should be possessed of notable literary skill. In Mrs. Catherwood's 'Lady of Fort St. John' such justification is not apparent. The fort, by the way, is historically and commonly known as Fort La Tour, or the "habitation of the River St. John," and the Lady as Constance, on which, either for sound or significance, Mrs. Catherwood's Marie is hardly an improvement. The events of the story immediately precede and comprise the surrender of the fort by Mme. La Tour to Charnizay. Excepting a few particulars of the surrender, the book is unadulterated and commonplace fiction. The characterization of Charnizay is unduly harsh, if not false, and that of La Tour and his wife vague and inadequate. It is to be supposed that the weird creature who rides or flies about on a swan is a pure creation of the fancy, and her importance casts a doubt on the sincerity of the author's prefatory scorn of "shadows and types, when we may go back through history and live again with people who actually lived." Learning and inspiration together probably fall short of exact truth in an effort to reproduce the past; but the combination often succeeds in arraying the most credible narration of events, and in describing characters and motives with a perfect resemblance to truth. In Mrs. Catherwood's story, facts are few and so narrated as to lose most of their inherent picturesqueness, while imagination is chiefly expended on the impossible.

'An Imperative Duty' may be best described as a situation involving two rather difficult problems of conduct. For the particular instances, the given solutions seem natural and proper, but the wisdom of a general application would be doubtful. The weakness of Mrs. Meredith's solution is, that if it were accepted as unequivocally right, conscientious people might always relieve themselves from bearing peculiarly unpleasant consequences of their own acts. The impeccability of a conscience that compels a woman most cruelly to wound one who has always been dependent on her affection, is at least debatable. Mr. Howells, without expressing an opinion, shows how Mrs. Meredith was driven to tell Rhoda about her antecedents by the lash of a hypochondriacal conscience, applied to hysterical nerves. We feel that Olney's solution of his problem is, for him, right and just and admirable, but, supposing that he had known of Rhoda's mixed blood from the beginning of their acquaintance, would marriage with her have been so commendable? The inference from Mr. Howells's presentation of the case is that it would, and yet it is certain that such marriages increase the war between temperament and character which he declares to be "the fruitful cause of misery in the world, where all strains are now so crossed and intertangled that there is no definite and unbroken direction any more in any of us." But it is fair to hold Mr. Howells responsible only for his particular instance, and to regard some of Olney's utterances as mere lover's extravagance, not as condemnation of all men who would not do as he does, nor as an adjuration to young men in search of an object of special pride to go get a wife with a strain of negro blood. The situation is described and argued with that lucidity, force, and grace which give to all Mr. Howells's stories a rare distinction.

The story of 'The Little Minister' is told by that dominie whose acquaintance is made in 'A Window in Thrums.' It is a poetical, passionate story, with a plot so romantic as to appear quite old-fashioned. Unlike most clever writers of character sketches, the dominie has understood that a long novel is the better for a sustained plot, and none the worse for an air of mystery and the leaven of a few dramatic situations. The blind god never played a more mischievous trick than when he arranged the meeting between the little minister, Gavin Dishart, and the elusive gypsy, in the elf-haunted shades of Caddam Wood. An Auld Licht minister is, after all, but a man, especially when at the age of twenty-one and complacently scornful of the frivolous sex. When Gavin got the "call" to Thrums, and was able to establish his devoted mother in the manse, the troubles of life seemed to lie behind and the future shone fair, provided his physical vigor should prove equal to the demands of Thrums for loud-voiced denunciation of all things natural and agreeable to weak humanity. Poor Gavin had not counted on an "Egyptian limmer" coming dancing out of limbo, straight into his cut-and-dried life, dictating heaven or hell for him by the ring of her voice and the light of her eyes. But when, at last, he understands the wonderful, terrible force that sweeps away all his well-known self, except his stanch integrity, then let Thrums rise and with imprecation stone him from its limits: Babbie is his and the joy thereof passes understanding. Mr. Barrie leaves us in doubt about the action taken by Thrums when the news of the marriage over the tongs was confirmed, but the inference from the behavior of "lang Thammas" is that they accepted what couldn't be helped, and proceeded to vindicate outraged righteousness by proving to Babbie how far from a bed of roses is the lot of a minister's wife.

'A Modern Aladdin' and 'The Spanish Galleon' are modern versions of very old tales. The mysterious personage who wears in a crystal ball hung round his neck the charm that wards off old age and death, has flitted casually across the page of history, and has long been the property of story-tellers. In Mr. Pyle's hands he has really the freshness of youth, he is as good as new, and has that polish, elegance, and unabashed wickedness which centuries of high society and moral irresponsibility should properly bestow. The narrative of his capture of that good rustic, Oliver Munier, and of what he did with him, is exceedingly ingenious and amusing, and is told with an attention to salient detail that gives it an air of sober fact.

The author of 'The Spanish Galleon' has not spared detail, and if there breathes a man or boy whose early education has been so neglected that he knows neither 'Robinson Crusoe' nor the 'Swiss Family Robinson,' he may read with pleasure this prolix account of solitary life on a desert island and recovery from ocean's depths of a Spanish treasure-ship. Mr. William Morgan appears to know more about applied science than Crusoe did, and is certainly not such a favorite of Fortune as was the ingenuous Swiss family; yet neither learning nor self-reliance gives him the charm of those old friends, to know whom is to make comparison inevitable.

It is kind to regard Mr. Conway's 'Prisons of Air' as a freak of genius, and not amiss to remind him that few literary reputations are so firmly established as not to suffer from indulgence in such freaks. There is a limit beyond which public confidence cannot be forced, and that limit is reached in 'Prisons of Air.' Knowing Mr. Conway as a sane if sometimes excursive littérateur, we expect to find in a novel by him some indications of literary cultivation, of knowing how to do it, and are willing to excuse, if necessary, the lack of any aptitude for story-telling. All that we do find is a perfect illustration of how not to do it. Time was when the romantic office boy or chambermaid might have followed with starting eyes the woful doom of the Redleghs extending through nine generations in fulfilment of a gypsy's prophecy, but the indications of publishers' ledgers are that that time has gone by, and that Lady Amanda and Lord Adolphus, with their whole spectacular equipment of dooms and weirds, lost wills and wandering heirs, can no longer be said to draw in this enlightened land. This is one of the most encouraging signs of the times, and we regret that Mr. Conway, in his 'Prisons of Air,' should so elaborately have written himself down a reactionary.

Letters of Field-Marshal Count Helmuth von Moltke to his Mother and his Brothers. Translated by Clara Bell and Henry W. Fischer. Harper & Bros. 1892. 8vo, pp. 317.

Von Moltke's letters to his mother and to his brothers Adolf and Ludwig compose the fourth volume in the German edition of his collected works; in the order of issue they are the second volume, the first in the order of publication having been the History of the War of 1870 (vol. iii. of the works); a third volume has been recently issued containing miscellaneous writings, and forming vol. ii. of the works. The translation of the letters is by the same hands that furnished the English version of the History, and, while it reads smoothly and may, in the main, be pronounced fairly correct, it contains some odd blunders which cannot, in this case, as was done in our review of the former book, be ascribed to the technical character of the work, but are evidently due to an imperfect knowledge of German and to a lack of literary instinct. The wonder still grows that people who know so much of a foreign language did not contrive to know a little more. For instance, it is almost incredible that any one undertaking a task like this should not know that *Rechentafel* means the slate familiar to every schoolboy and not a "counting-board," as it is translated on page 15. Two pages further on, we find "Hosen" rendered "gaiters," instead of "trousers," although later on in the book the same word is correctly translated. Errors of this kind are trivial, and will not disturb any reader who has not the original before him, but the offence is more serious when the translators actually represent their unfortunate author as saying the very reverse of what he actually did say. Thus, on page 15, we read: "I am glad to think that I shall soon have done with surveying." What Moltke wrote is, in the original: "Eben erhalte ich einen Brief aus Berlin, der einen Thaler vier Groschen porto kostet, es sind Messinstrumente dabei für die Schule; ich freue mich sehr darauf, die Aufnahme geht nun bald los." That is to say, he is glad the instruments have come, as they will enable him to go right on with the work. Some of the mistakes are very hard to explain, as they occur in passages that present no difficulty whatever, as on page 26, where it is said that "The Kospoths *interest themselves in everything* that is fashionable and distingué in Silesia." This is nonsense, but becomes quite plain when for the four words we have italicized

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we substitute the following: "are related to everybody." Perhaps the most comical blunder of all is the following passage (on p. 14): "I have lately made the acquaintance of Countess Blumenthal and her family, *who have been to Gutsnachbar in the Liebethal*, and say they recognized me by my family likeness." We again italicize the words which contain the error. The translators evidently take *Gutsnachbar* to be the name of a place; it is simply an every-day German common noun, and means the proprietor of a neighboring estate: Moltke simply wrote that the Blumenthal family had been on a visit to neighbors. Probably most readers will be puzzled to read, on page 34, "I arrived here safe and sound by mail on Sunday," and will wonder whether human beings were forwarded in that way sixty years ago; Moltke really says that he is "mit der Post eingetroffen," that is, "arrived with the mail," or, in other words, he travelled in the mail coach, which had not as yet given way to the railroad.

We had noted a few other instances of mistranslation, but they are not of importance and do not seriously impair the value of the book for non-German readers, to whom this translation will sufficiently convey the substance of Moltke's letters, although they will, to a great extent, miss the charm of his natural and unaffected although highly cultivated style. Those of them who still regard the great general as nothing but a cold, grim, taciturn strategist, with no genial traits to soften his iron character, will be led by his familiar letters to revise their preconceived estimate. It is to their autobiographic revelations, and to the side-light they cast on Moltke's inner life, that these letters owe the greater part of their interest. They enable us to follow him from his early struggles with poverty, and to appreciate the dogged perseverance and industry with which he carved out a career for himself. He writes a good deal about money, about the economy he is forced to practise, about his debts and the like, which might seem sordid if it were not in letters to his mother, to whom he opens his heart freely on every topic; at the same time, although his finances are not brilliant, he offers to set apart for his mother's use five thalers a month, when his own pay is only forty-five thalers. On another occasion he offers to his father the proceeds of a book he has written; he is always ready to help his brothers from his own scanty means. His warm affection for all the members of his family, from his earliest youth to the very end of his career, is a specifically German trait; not quite so German is the generosity with which he is willing to aid them in proportion to his increasing wealth. Moltke had the reputation of being almost as stingy as that other Field-Marshal, Wrangel; he says himself in one of these letters that it is hard to shake off in his old age the habits of economy which were forced on him by the poverty of his youth.

His intellectual activity and energy were untiring, and serve in great measure to account for his commanding position. If he had not been a great general, he would probably have been a great writer. As it was, he published a considerable number of books, mostly potboilers, but nevertheless not devoid of merit. He undertook a translation of Gibbon, and, with the assistance of his brother, completed it, although it was never published, as before he got to the end the money troubles which had prompted him to begin it had ceased to oppress him. Aside from his literary labors, he dabbled in painting. His accomplishments as a linguist are proverbial.

His distinguished career was but the natural result of his abilities and the good use he made of them. His rapid rise after he had once attracted the attention of his superiors is an additional demonstration of the high degree of intelligence with which the Prussian monarchy has always selected its servants, thereby in great measure securing its constant increase in power and prestige. Although Moltke was thirty-three before he reached the grade of first lieutenant, he was promoted captain two years later, and on this occasion he wrote to his mother, under date of April 21, 1835:

"With regard to my promotion, four of my seniors in my old regiment are still second lieutenants. I have passed over their heads and the whole body of twelve first lieutenants. Even in the Guards the men who got their commission at the same time with me are only just made first lieutenants, and I am perhaps the only captain in the army who entered so late as 1822. Thus I have made good the four years I lost in the Danish service."

Taken as a whole, the correspondence here published reveals an interesting and sympathetic personality. The reader feels that he is in the presence of one of the world's great men: a great man morally and intellectually. Moltke was in no sense a happy accident; there was no element of mere luck in his career. He stands as a perfect representative of everything that is best and most worthy of admiration in the German national character, and his unrivalled military genius is but one of a harmonious assemblage of traits that enabled him not only to command success, but to deserve it.

A Universal English-German and German-English Dictionary. By Dr. Felix Flügel. Being the fourth, entirely rewritten, edition of Dr. J. G. Flügel's Complete Dictionary of the English and German Languages. New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1891.

THE creation of adequate and comprehensive polyglot lexicons appears to be one of the latest and least cultivated occupations of modern scholarship. While such monumental works as the dictionaries of the English Philological Society, of the Century Company, of Webster and Worcester, of the French Academy, of Pierre Larousse and of Littré, of Sanders and of the Grimm brothers, indicate what may be accomplished within the limits of a single tongue, the work or works which might form the binding links between the three great modern languages have not yet been evolved and compiled, though a rich mass of material awaits the fortunate combination of patient and accurate scholarship supported by enlightened commercial enterprise.

Among the contributions towards such an undertaking might be mentioned the admirable and ingenious little French and English dictionary by John Bellows, the great French and German lexicon of Sachs-Villate, and the English and German dictionary of Flügel, the concluding number of which has just been issued. The fourth if not final edition of this well-established work recalls the interesting relations of the Flügel family to this lexigraphic inheritance. It was the elder Flügel who laid the practical foundations of the work during a long residence in this country. Visiting the United States as a merchant about 1803, he remained here fifteen years, travelling up and down the Mississippi for more than a decade in his own vessels. His charts and logbooks, still preserved, would afford valuable reminiscences of the early navigation of the great river. Later he published an English grammar and taught at the Leipsic University, where his grandson Ewald, the accomplished editor of *Anglia*, now discusses English and American literature. As United States consul in Leipsic and agent of the Smithsonian Institution, offices efficiently filled afterwards by his son Felix, he rendered useful services to the land which he represented. In 1830 was published the first edition of his Dictionary, a work which was copious for its time, and boasted a larger vocabulary than even the current English lexicons. It is this work which, after passing through various editions and revisions in Germany and England, now appears anew in charge of the second and third generations.

The position of the present edition seems secure. It is destined to remain for a long period the standard dictionary of reference for translating between English and German, and a place should be found for it on the desk of every teacher and every advanced student of the two languages. For daily and ordinary use in reading and travel, abridged dictionaries like Thieme-Preusser, Cassell-Heath, and Longman will still remain useful and convenient helps; but they will need to be supplemented by frequent consultations of Flügel not less than of Sanders, Grimm, Weigand, Heyne, Heyse, and Kluge. For that no one lexicon may satisfy all demands is a discovery made at an early stage by every student, and in lexicography at least the proverb holds good that only in a multitude of counsellors there is safety.

The typographical effect of Flügel's dictionary is excellent. The page is divided into triple columns, and the leading word of each article is in full-face. The type is small but clear, and all German words are consistently printed in German characters, while the extremely revised orthography is conservatively avoided. The pronunciation of the English words is indicated—so far as pronunciation may be indicated—after the method of Worcester, by a simple key repeated as a running caption; but the page is not sown with any elaborate system of symbolism to mark by various familiar and unfamiliar devices the classification of the vocabulary. The range of definition includes the technical or scientific terminology. Foreign terms, in Latin as well as in other languages, are not excluded, and geographical nomenclature and proper names, including classical mythology, are exhaustively illustrated. Nautical phrases are well represented. Tables of strong verbs and irregular nouns are given, and a summary of the marks of pronunciation. Abbreviations are found scattered through the text under the initial letters, the articles on which are replete with information. Etymologies are wisely avoided. A formidable tale of English authors cited is enumerated, but the list appears to be fully utilized in the text, with chapter and verse indicated. The excerpts in the English-German part range from Shakspere through the usual seventeenth and eighteenth-century worthies, on which German students of English are often overfed, down through the present century to our own Mark Twain. In extent and attractiveness of quotation the work compares advantageously with Webster and Worcester, and although this feature may be intended more for the foreign reader, the possessor of the work in England or America will turn to these quotations with interest and satisfaction.

Both divisions of the Dictionary have been enlarged by collections of materials made by the author—collections so rich that it has been feasible to make only partial use of them. The principal lexicons in both languages have also

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been utilized, but for this employment due acknowledgment has been made. Attention is incidentally called to the fundamental value of Johnson and Todd, whose treasures have been freely plundered by later laborers in the same field. It would appear that some German lexicographers, like Lucas and Grieb, have not abstained from following similar traditions of plagiarism.

To sum up, the Flügel Dictionary is the fruit of honest, long-continued, legitimate scholarly work. An undertaking of this sort, which is no slight influence in aiding two peoples to a more intimate understanding of each other's literature and life, is worthy of a cordial welcome on this side of the ocean too.

The Afghan Wars, 1839–42, 1878–80. By Archibald Forbes. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

Mr. Archibald Forbes has written an excellent account of those two very remarkable episodes of Anglo-Indian history, the Afghan wars. He has compressed, with a light hand and by a very clear arrangement of his materials, a great many important events and transactions, political as well as military, into a handy volume which contains all that the general reader could wish to know upon this subject, explaining concisely the connection of of the two wars, and bringing up to the present date the history of the relations of India with Afghanistan.

The period which he traverses extends from 1839, when an Anglo-Indian army first crossed the Afghan frontier, up to 1880, when, at the close of the second war, the last British regiment evacuated the country. The story of the first war, which ended in 1842, includes a vivid and very accurate description of the great disaster which overtook the British troops in their attempt to retreat from Kabul in January, 1842, when some 4,500 men, with a much larger number of camp-followers, were totally destroyed by the Afghans. No sterner example could be found, in all the annals of warfare, of the consequences of irresolution, imprudence, and incapacity; and never were the conditions of Asiatic fighting more pointedly illustrated than by this narrative, which shows how a well-disciplined and well-armed force, ill led and badly handled, can be exterminated by a horde of barbarians. In the second war, nearly forty years later, precisely the same lesson was enforced at the unlucky battle of Maiwend, where a British division of about 2,500 men was completely routed by the Afghans, with a loss of 964 killed. If any one desires to understand quite plainly how *not* to conduct campaigns against an Asiatic enemy who gives no trouble to Europeans that know their business, he has only to study carefully Mr. Forbes's account of these military operations. If, on the other hand, he prefers to learn how these things should be done, he will find in the defence of Jellalabad, in Gen. Pollock's advance to Kabul (1842), and in Sir Frederick Roberts's march from Kabul to Kandahar in 1880, choice specimens of the best workmanship in the art of Oriental war. To the civilized European, with his arms of precision, it seems at first sight equally simple to rule barbarians and to rout them in the field; but they give no quarter in war or in politics, and mistakes are apt to involve massacres.

Of both Afghan wars the political motives and causes were the same: the English desired to bring the country under their influence, and particularly to exclude the ascendancy of Russia. England has virtually proclaimed a kind of Monroe Doctrine in Asia with regard to all those States which surround the frontiers of India. Just as the United States do not permit the interference, within certain limits, of European Powers on the North American continent, so the English Government bars all encroachment by European rivals within the regions bordering upon its Indian possessions. It was the rumor of Russian advance upon the northern frontier of Afghanistan that caused the expedition of 1839, the invasion of 1879, and very nearly brought on a rupture with Russia in 1885. This principle is the backbone of English policy in the East; and Mr. Forbes explains, with remarkable power of comprehensive view, combined with great precision of details, the working of this principle throughout the last fifty years. He also draws true and striking portraits of the principal actors in the stirring scenes that he describes—of Dost Mahommed Khan, the ablest Ameer of the Kabul dynasty, of his son Akbar Khan, who shot the British envoy at a conference, and of the present Ameer, Abdurrahman Khan, who for the last ten years has been ruling the Afghans with bloody severity, who has mastered the fighting clans, and has nearly reduced them to the melancholy condition of a tame and orderly people. To the English generals who have from time to time distinguished themselves in Afghanistan by brilliant feats or disastrous failures, Mr. Forbes distributes impartial credit or censure; and on Sir Frederick Roberts, who commanded at Kabul during the perilous vicissitudes of the campaign of 1879–1880, he bestows well-merited praise. He shows a true insight into Afghan character, and a generous appreciation of the patriotic valor with which these hardy tribesmen united against the English garrison at Kabul, and spent their blood in the determined attack upon the English position in the winter of 1879. We may approve or condemn the proceedings of the English in Asia, we may regard the steady expansion of their dominion as the progress of civilization or as unjustifiable territorial aggrandizement; but the subject is of unending and world-wide interest; the story is full of tragic incident and heroic enterprise; and the book now before us describes some of the most important and effective scenes of the great drama.

English Colonization and Empire. By Alfred Caldecott. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

The success of University Extension in England has prompted an endeavor to furnish the general reader, through a series of manuals, that combination of principles with facts and methods with results which has been the essential feature of the best extension lectures. Some thirty manuals are announced, and several have already appeared. The present work is filled with well-digested matter set forth in an engaging style. Apt literary references and illustrations, such as a cultivated lecturer would naturally introduce, relieve the narrative here and there, and in one or two other respects the personal tone recalls the lecture-room. For example, it is not England or the English people, but "we," who did this and that. This is a rhetorical blemish in a text-book designed in part for America.

Stated most succinctly, Mr. Caldecott's subject is "the diffusion of European civilization over the face of the inhabited and habitable world." After an introduction admirable alike in matter and form, the work of Portugal, Spain, and England in the pioneer period of discoveries, and the international struggle for supremacy, are described. The historical section is concluded with chapters on the rise of the English power in India and more recent dependencies, and on the development and separation of the American colonies. The rest of the volume, about three-fifths of the whole, deals with the government of the empire, trade policy, supply of labor, native races, education, and religion. As characteristic features of this diffusion of European civilization over the world—differentiating it from earlier migrations—Mr. Caldecott notes: Knowledge of the whole surface of the earth; practical mastery of it and control of the forces of nature—"space obstacles yield to steam, and time obstacles to electricity"; recognition of the oneness of the human race; wealth, under the form of capital, highly mobile, available in any part of the world; the finality of physical science as regards truths in actual possession; and lastly, the moral influence of Christianity.

The sketch of colonization is extremely well done. The author brings out clearly how thoroughly the Spanish colonial policy was dominated by monopoly, but he leaves somewhat indistinct the same feature of the English policy. In regard to the American colonies he doubts whether the broad effect of the navigation laws gave "any serious ground for complaint," as the interference with the natural course of trade was not considerable. The prevalence of illicit trade and smuggling points towards a modification of this judgment.

The section on Africa is a convenient and timely description of the present political condition of that continent brought down to the spring of 1891. One is surprised, upon comparing the maps, to see at what a rate taking possession of Africa has gone on in the last eleven years. There is nothing like it in the previous history of colonization. In this movement the English have a marked advantage in possessing the best part of South Africa with its temperate climate.

In discussing emigration, Mr. Caldecott estimates the value of an immigrant at what it costs to raise one in the mother country. The figure he gives—£175—is Dr. Farr's estimate of the present value of an immigrant, which is found by multiplying his annual net earnings into his expectation of life. In other words, the value of an immigrant to the United States is not what it cost to raise him in Germany, but what he will contribute to the production of wealth in the United States. Among the suggestive comments scattered along Mr. Caldecott's pages one or two may be cited. He compares the modern syndicate with the old chartered trading companies. One secures monopoly by force, the other started with it, but, the monopoly once acquired, the problem of management, the strength and weakness of the organization in both cases, are much the same. The comment on the exclusion of the Chinese is very happy: "In America and Australia, men are practically acknowledging that the Chinaman was right in closing the ports of his country against men of different civilization, for they are now reverting to his policy."

In conclusion we may note some errors that should be corrected. The explanation, page 18, how Brazil came to belong to Portugal is confused and erroneous. More serious is the ante-bellum Southern view of our Federal Union: "The 'States' of America are sovereign States acting under a compact. To speak of 'federating' Great Britain and her colonies is to acknowledge the virtual independence of the latter." This is an extraordinary misapprehension in so well-informed a writer. Not so grave an error, but a statement either indicat-

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ing little familiarity with our polity or suffering from too great brevity, is that on page 195, that slavery was abolished by "Presidential decree in 1864, during their great secession war." On page 193, in speaking of the early colonial period, Mr. Caldecott says: "In Pennsylvania slavery was soon disallowed." It was not until 1780 that the movement really began with the passage of a gradual emancipation act. On page 47 Irving is enumerated among the sons of New England. The statement on page 218 that "the existence of non-Adamite man is still an open question" savors more strongly of theological apologetics than of scientific ethnology.

The Antiquities and Curiosities of the Exchequer. By Hubert Hall. With illustrations by Ralph Nevill, and preface by Sir John Lubbock. London: Elliot Stock; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 8vo, pp. xvi., 230.

THE author of this first instalment of the "Camden Library" begins his preface with the assertion that the Exchequer "is certainly the stock from which the several branches of administration originally sprang." This is a sweeping generalization which cannot be accepted without reservation. The best authorities on constitutional history rightly maintain that the Exchequer is one of various central institutions which emerged from the "Curia Regis" of the early Norman kings of England. All will agree with Mr. Hall, however, in ascribing to the Exchequer great importance in the development of the English Constitution. In his book he aims to draw attention to the "quaint surroundings and mystical practice" of the Exchequer, "its working staff, and all the chief appurtenances of its mediæval existence." Most of the results embodied in this work have already appeared in the form of essays, printed in periodicals and in the publications of the Pipe Roll Society. This fact should have been more clearly indicated in the preface.

In chapter i. an attempt is made to determine the official seat of the Treasury in the twelfth century. The author declares in favor of Westminster, but thinks that there were various secondary treasuries. The most important of these was at Winchester, and it was specially designed to accommodate plate, regalia, and jewels, for which a permanent repository was not provided at Westminster until early in the thirteenth century. It cannot be said that Mr. Hall proves these conclusions, and in the *Antiquary* (June and July, 1887) Mr. Round advances some strong arguments in favor of the view that Winchester Castle was the chief treasury in the reigns of Henry I., Stephen, and Henry II. We must also take exception to the remarks on p. 7 concerning the Treasury in the time of Edward the Confessor, which are based on biographies of that King written in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. From the statements in these sources Mr. Hall infers that the Treasury organization under the Confessor was similar to that of the twelfth century. But he presents no evidence to show that the biographer of the twelfth century is not describing the Exchequer as it existed in his day, rather than in the time of King Edward. Non-contemporary chroniclers of the Middle Ages did not take pains to make such incidental references to institutions of the past conform to facts.

Chapter ii. contains an account of the contents of the mediæval treasury—the coin, regalia, plate, and records. From the earliest times national records were kept for safety in the king's hoard. Those at Westminster were first carefully arranged in 1327. The author briefly describes some of the principal categories of records and the manner in which they were stored away.

The "Exchequer House" and the "Officers of the Exchequer" are the titles of chapters iii. and iv. respectively. Mr. Hall thinks that, during the twelfth century, the chief Exchequer building was in the river-garden of Westminster Palace. His description of the upper and lower chambers is derived from the well-known account given by the author of the 'Dialogus de Scaccario.' The ancient Exchequer buildings were much changed after the end of the thirteenth century, the "upper chamber," or "Exchequer of Account," being removed from the premises occupied by the "lower chamber," or "Exchequer of Receipt." Occasionally it was found necessary to locate the Exchequer temporarily at some other place. For example, in 15 Edward II., the paraphernalia of that institution, including eighteen cart-loads of records, were removed to York, owing to the exigencies of the Scotch war. The letters printed in chapter iv., relating to the domestic affairs of certain Exchequer officers, do not seem to be very instructive or valuable.

The "chess game," or mode of reckoning accounts on the Exchequer table, is described in the next chapter. The author follows the 'Dialogus' in seating seven officials at the head of the table, within a space of about two and one-half feet. It is unfortunate that the explanation of the diagram illustrating the method of computation at the Exchequer (p. 115) seems to contain errors. It is not clear how the lower line of the figure can represent a deficit of £14 17s. 4d. That there is something wrong with Mr. Hall's calculation or statements is evident from the fact that he makes the same diagram represent a deficit of £3 1s. (p. 221). Apart from this dubious two-fold use of his illustration, there is certainly an error in his computation on page 221; for the combination of dots or counters in the fourth row makes £12 19s. 2d. (cf. p. 129), not £12 18s. 2d. We fear that many uninitiated readers will fail to comprehend "this formidable-looking cryptogram," though Mr. Hall made the meaning of the "dot-system" quite plain in volume vii. of the Pipe Roll Series. In vol. iii. of the Pipe Rolls he did not seem to accept the ordinary view that the Exchequer table in the twelfth century was covered with a checkered cloth or had the appearance of a chess-board, but in the work before us this view is adopted. It would be interesting to know whether he has found any new material that has led to this apparent change of opinion. The author of the 'Dialogus' presents no clear evidence in favor of either view.

Chapter vi. ("Exchequer Problems"), which is mainly an abstract of book ii. of the 'Dialogus,' contains an account of the Pipe Rolls, summonses and writs of the Exchequer, testing of coin, etc.; and chapter vii. ("The Making of the Budget") gives a brief history of the sources of royal revenue in the Middle Ages. The latter is one of the best chapters in the book, though it contains some doubtful speculation. On p. 178 we are informed that there is no evidence to show when or how the old folk-lands became crown-lands; but on p. 204 this change is said to have occurred at the end of the ninth century. On p. 205 the author speaks of the Laws of Edward the Confessor as though they formed an authentic code, made by that monarch "with the approval of his wise men"; but historians now agree that they are a private compilation of the twelfth century.

It is clear, from what has been said above, that Mr. Hall's work is wanting in scholarly accuracy and critical method. It is also disappointing to find, in a book claiming to give "original" results, very few references to the sources from which the material has been obtained. For example, an interesting document is printed on pp. 25–28, which "is translated here from the Norman-French of the original record"; but we are not told where the record may be found. Another striking defect of the book is the author's obscure style. Every chapter is marred by many misty phrases and sentences. The following are a few of them: "the next fifty years," p. 8; "the Tower," pp. 33–34 (it seems at first view to mean the Tower of London, but apparently this is not the meaning); "only a century later," p. 38 (later than what?); "contents of the record repository," p. 49 (what repository? He has spoken of several; cf. pp. 35, 60); "the records deposited in the royal treasury were preserved in similar receptacles to the bullion," p. 49; "former" and "latter," p. 60; "King Edward's day," p. 65 (Edward the Confessor or Edward I.?); "throughout the reign," p. 72 (what reign?); "between the two," p. 80; the definition of a tally, p. 120; "placing a counter in every tenth place for intervening units in the second and third columns," p. 127; "on each of these rotulets lines were ruled, ample space being left between each, and also between the top and bottom of the joint membranes," p. 139; "both items," p. 169; "their" (apparently referring to "the alien"), p. 199; "the etymology of the word," p. 200 (what word?); "these early records," and "of the latter," p. 201.

In the preface the author intimates that the older historians of the Exchequer are too erudite to be intelligible to ordinary readers. But they will probably find Madox and Thomas easier to understand than Hall; and learned readers will long for some of Madox's formidable foot-notes and cautious reasoning. In closing the volume before us, we feel that it contains some valuable results, which cannot be found in older works, but that a better book should have been produced by a writer who is regarded by many as the best recent authority on the history of the Exchequer. Forthcoming volumes of this series should be written in either a more popular or a more learned style, and they should be provided with better indexes.

Mutual Thrift. By J. Frome Wilkinson. [Social Questions of To-day Series.] London: Methuen & Co. 1891.

THE virtue of providence is the cornerstone of human progress. Like charity in the realm of ethics, it is in the economic world the greatest of virtues, without which the others profit nothing. It is not the most amiable of traits; the prudent man may be sometimes avaricious, envious, harsh, and mean. His conduct does not give color to life or furnish subject for romance. His aim may be narrow and his motive selfish, but he renders to society a service that is indispensable to its advance. Moreover, his habit of mind becomes inevitably, as a rule, bound up with the reproductive instinct, and comprehends the welfare of the family as well as of the individual. Nor does the broadening of this form of egoism stop here, for it is the lesson of civilization that the good of the individual is best attained through the welfare of

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others. It is to a particular application of this general principle that Mr. Wilkinson has devoted this most instructive volume, his text being that "by the contribution of the savings of many persons to one common fund, the most effectual provision can be made for casualties liable to affect all the contributors."

The extent to which associations for this purpose have been formed in England is amazing. Mr. Wilkinson has not included either the co-operative societies or the trade-unions, and he takes no account of deposits in savings banks, nor of the life-insurance companies patronized by the middle and upper classes. But, with these deductions, the figures are still of the most impressive magnitude. Those friendly societies known as "affiliated orders" have a membership of over 2,000,000, and funds amounting to over £14,000,000. Twenty-six of these bodies had in 1886 an income of £2,786,000, and disbursed in sick benefits and funeral allowances £1,735,000. If we add other societies, we have the enormous total membership in societies insuring for sickness as well as death of 4,394,696, with funds amounting to over £20,000,000. In addition to all these, there are "collecting" societies, which are intended to provide only for burial expenses, with a membership of over 3,500,000, but with funds amounting to only about £2,500,000. With large allowances for double membership, it yet appears that these societies are now insuring over 6,000,000 persons, or more than one for every family not possessed of affluence in the United Kingdom.

In the class of societies insuring against death should apparently be included the "Industrial Assurance" societies. The largest of these are stock companies, whose stock is owned by persons other than the assured, and is extremely lucrative property. Three-fourths of the business done by these companies, which number fourteen, is in the hands of one of them, the "Prudential." The number of its policies now in force is probably 9,000,000—in other words, a fourth of the population of the United Kingdom are its policy-holders! The stockholders seem to receive annually about 100 per cent. upon the capital originally invested. The average amount insured for life is somewhat over £9, the total of insurance being about £83,000,000. The expenses of management are, however, enormous, consuming nearly one-half of the receipts for premiums. The growth of these societies has been in recent years extremely rapid. In 1878 their premium income was about £1,500,000, in 1887 it was £4,180,000. In the former year the death claims paid amounted to a little over £500,000, in the latter year the amount had risen to £1,664,000.

Mr. Wilkinson gives the insurances effected by the middle and upper classes—which are not included in the above figures—as amounting to about £400,000,000, divided among some 750,000 policy-holders. We may add that a reference to Mr. George Howell's account of the trade-unions shows that the membership of these bodies is probably nearly 1,500,000, having an annual income of about £2,000,000, and reserve funds of the same amount. Although the impression is common that these bodies aim chiefly to support their members during strikes, this is by no means the case, their principal function being to insure against less avoidable casualties. If we consider also the large sums deposited in the Government and other savings banks, it is impossible not to admit that the charge commonly brought by the English against themselves that they are a thriftless race, is a most unwarranted calumny. On the contrary, there is abundant ground for asserting that, had it not been for the mischievous effects of public and private almsgiving, the English people would have abundantly protected themselves against the pecuniary ills that flesh is heir to, and that, even as it is, the great masses of the deserving poor have so protected themselves.

We cannot follow Mr. Wilkinson in his interesting account of the origin and growth of these "mutual thrift" societies. The earlier ones were generally secret, with much mummery in their proceedings and a somewhat excessive predominance of the convivial element. Even now many of these associations have their meetings in public houses—places, it is true, not having the disrepute in England that they have in this country, but not in all respects unobjectionable. It goes without saying that the principles of life and casualty assurance were not at first understood, and that great numbers of these bodies came to grief owing to the lack of this knowledge. It is still true that these principles are imperfectly understood, and many failures now occur and will continue to occur until the lessons of experience have been generally learned. But what is especially impressive at the present conjuncture is, that these bodies have been until recently hindered and not helped by the attempts of Government to regulate their affairs.

As is well known, the jealousy with which combinations of workmen were regarded by English law was for a long time so extreme as to include associations for all purposes that were not clearly of a kind not likely to lead to conspiracies to raise wages or otherwise lessen the control of masters. Where they were not positively prohibited, the law at least refused them its assistance, as in cases where officers of these friendly societies had misappropriated the funds intrusted to them. Even when this injustice had been remedied, great injury was done to these societies by the arbitrary power of the officer to whose discretion their registration was committed. The Government, moreover, practically insisted that they should do business according to life tables that were eventually proved to be so defective that their use necessarily resulted in disaster. But the evil effects of governmental folly were most severely felt at the time when the abuses under the Poor Law were at their worst. The practice of granting allowances in aid of wages ruined almost all mutual-insurance societies where it prevailed; and yet these societies sprang at once from their ashes when the abuse was stopped. So dependent upon the virtue of their members for their success are these bodies that they seem to flourish best when most let alone. Mr. Wilkinson remarks upon the feebleness of those that have been patronized, and Mr. Howell declares positively, "No trade union started under patronage has long survived."

We would gladly dwell upon the noble work accomplished by some of the devoted men who have labored for these organizations with little reward except the establishment of the work of their hands, but we must refer those who are interested in such themes to Mr. Wilkinson's pages. Eventually these men worked out the principles upon which their business must be conducted to be enduring, and it is now only a question of time when these methods will be generally adopted. Perhaps we should rather say that it would be only a question of time were it not for the threatening aspect of the State insurance scheme. The Socialistic craze is now so strong in England that it is not improbable that this scheme, which embodies the exploded fallacies of the old Poor Law, will be adopted, in which case the most disastrous results to this magnificent structure of voluntary mutual insurance will follow. As Mr. Wilkinson impressively says, "Any legislative proposal, however plausible and helpful it may appear, that in the smallest degree lessens the healthy cultivation and exercise of the economic and moral virtues of self-reliance and self-help, as seen in the great voluntary mutual-thrift institutions of our country, will strike a deadly blow against national progress."

The Campaign of Fredericksburg, Nov.–Dec., 1862: A Tactical Study for Officers. By Brevet-Major G. F. R. Henderson, York and Lancaster Regiment. Third edition. London: Gale & Polden. 16mo, pp. xx, 145, colored maps.

The Battle of Spicheren: A Study in Practical Tactics and War Training. Same author and publishers. 16mo, pp. xxx, 300, colored maps.

THE first of these books is well known through the earlier editions, the original publication being anonymous, "by a line officer." The second is on the same general plan, being the detailed military history of the first battle on the Moselle frontier in the Franco-Prussian war. The form is compact, the printing good, the binding neat and suitable for use in camp. Both are models in their way of a good handy volume, flexible and easily packed in a valise or carried in a pocket, and yet so legible as to be read with comfort. In the matter of maps they are far beyond any books of moderate price published in this country. The outlines are clear, the indications of topography simple but good, and the positions and movements of the opposing forces are contrasted by bright red and blue colors, so that the eye follows them without hesitation or fatigue. The author's study of the official material has been conscientious, though, in the Fredericksburg, he does not conceal his sympathy with the Confederate side. This very fact will perhaps make the little book more instructive to the officers of our army, as they will be the more stimulated to independent examination of his statements and to a comparison with the full official records of that campaign, which are now published. In the Spicheren, he draws very forcibly the contrast between the uncertain and irresolute handling of the French armies, under the guidance of a general staff which he characterizes as utterly incompetent, and the systematic and strong combinations of the Germans, the fruit of the long discipline of both staff and line under the master mind and the firm hand of Moltke. The style is clear and direct, and the general reader (as well as military ones) will find it easy and interesting to follow the detailed movements of the battles described, aided so well by the comments of a competent guide and by the liberal array of charts and sketches.

Mr. Sponge's Sporting Tour. [The Jorrocks Edition.] London: Bradbury, Agnew & Co.

WHEN this book made its first appearance, just forty years ago, it was received with immense enthusiasm by youthful and sporting readers in England. *Tempora mutantur*, and though things change very slowly in the English shires, it seems scarcely possible that, even there, such dreary stuff can be admired to-day. The hero is a mean, shameless scamp, and the other characters, male and female, are either

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vile or insipid; while the whole book reeks of stale tobacco and gin, and leaves a bad taste in the mouth. Even Leech's illustrations, which young gentlemen of a quarter of a century ago regarded with reverence as works of art, are "standpoints overpassed," as our German friends say. Some of the devoted followers of the anise-seed bag in this country may take an interest in Mr. Sponge's adventures, but it is to be hoped that there is no general demand for this species of literature.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aveling, Edward. The Student's Marx. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.
Criticisms on "General" Booth's Social Scheme. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.
Du Bois, Henri P. Four Private Libraries of New York. Duprat & Co.
Fulton, Rev. J. The Chalcedonian Decree. Whittaker. $1.50.
Hatton, Joseph. Cigarette Papers. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Hazell's Annual for 1892. Scribners. $1.50.
Jackson, F. G. Lessons on Decorative Design. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribners. $2.
Sterne, Laurence. A Sentimental Journey through France and Italy. London: Pickering & Chatto; New York: J. W. Bouton.

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IT HAPPENED YESTERDAY.

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